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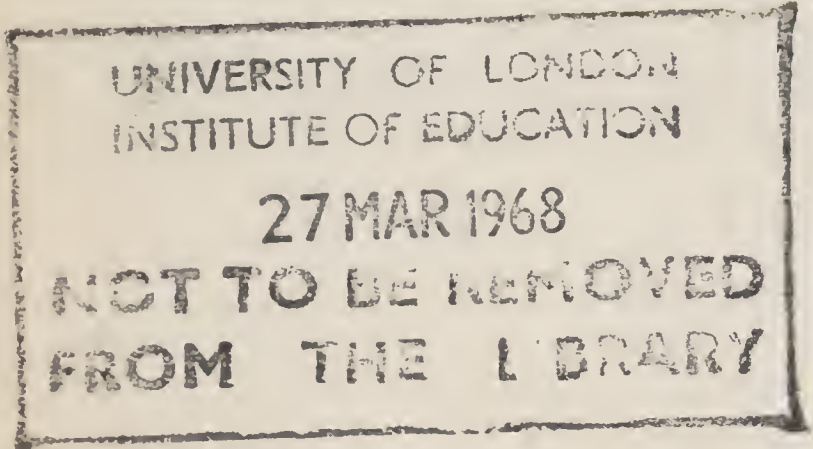
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the new era

in home and school the new education fellowship journal

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Editorial Notes

In this first number of the 1968 volume we have a purple cover and a variety of articles. Purple has regal ancestry, and is favoured by sedate elderly ladies if there are any left, and is in for mini-skirts and sweaters and modern ceilings. So that it is a suitable colour to hold the educational ferment of our world.

Robert Shields forces us to examine personal prejudice and the deep desire we all have to advise, rather than listen, in a dynamic approach to pupil counselling. We also see a use of language instead of a reliance on a few words of imprecise meaning. A teenager who read this article said in amazement 'those words all have a different shade of meaning. All are needed.'

J. R. Bellerby contributes a long review constructing a theory around a group of books on the social implications of education which were considered for an award made by Education Services. Interesting generalisations are less in vogue to day than purple mini-skirts whose occupants stress spontaneity and the happening rather than the rigid plan. In his final section the writer discusses aspects of the education of attitudes. He regrets the influence of mass media. Possibly had some of the work of Marshall McLuhan been included among those reviewed he might have seen new hope for the future. McLuhan sees print as only one instrument of communication and education. Other aids such as television, films, radio, record players, art, photography enlarge man. In 'The Extensions of Man' new doors are opened in a modern idiom to a future when the new media vastly enhance the potential of man. He says 'Panic about automation as a threat of uniformity on a world scale is the projection into the future of mechanical standardisation and specialism, which are now past.' The fascination of 'Micro and Macro Theory' must not blind us to this aspect of reality.

Dr. Ramunas writing about Canada's educational revolution is well in the future. His use of English with a French urgency may also point to a world when Europe is one, and a creative French English is well understood.

Guidance and Counselling

By Robert Shields

The concept of 'counselling' within the school setting has been described as 'an American importation.' Though this may be so, the kinds of problems which school children have to face from time to time are an indigenous product. The Americans are, perhaps, just that bit sooner off the mark in seeking to provide a specialist service to meet a specific need.

When one compares the vast quantity of careful study, training and enquiry which has been going on in the United States since the 1920s with what has so far been achieved in this country we see yet another example of the British gift for aiming at the minimum in education.

Furthermore, what work in this field has so far been attempted over here inclines one to think that the chief aim is to trivialize the role of the counsellor from the very beginning.

It is vitally important at the outset to differentiate between 'guidance services' and 'pupil counselling.' Personally, let me say in parenthesis, that I deplore both terms since they each incorporate the arrogant assumption that one human being has the right to press another human being towards a certain line of decision, and that this can be done with impunity so long as you get to know as little about him as a person as possible.

To return to my point, however, it would seem that guidance services do have a part to play in assessing, on the widest possible scale, a child's attainment, personality structure, intelligence, home pressures and personal potentialities, and then presenting him with these facts. But in presenting him with all this information our sole intention should be to equip him to make a more confident choice of action **by himself, and for himself.**

Even at the level of guidance, therefore, adult pressures should be absent, otherwise we run the risk of inviting docile agreement from the child who is over-conformist anyway, and anti-guidance decisions from the child who is in secret or open rebellion against adult figures.

The same principle of **non-directive guidance**

applies that much more rigorously in the sphere of pupil counselling. It should be clearly understood that guidance and counselling are two very different techniques and it is an open question as to whether the same individual can be equipped to undertake both tasks. For the skill of the counsellor resides in his capacity for passivity and the analysis of the operating factors within a particular situation.

It is against the spirit of the age to think that anyone of us has the right to advise, guide, induce, inspire, prompt, attract, stimulate, rouse, incite, provoke, instigate, actuate, sway, dispose, persuade, prevail upon, enlist, invite, court, tempt, seduce, entice, allure, coax, lure, suggest, inveigle, cajole, suborn, bribe, or in any way counsel another individual to follow the path that we happen to consider to be the best for him. Any decision he makes must be made by him alone.

Perhaps the best service the adult can offer the child or the adolescent is to listen to the very edge of one's patience, understand to the limit of one's ability, and support him even while he is making his own mistakes.

Such a process involves, on the part of the adult, an anti-omnipotent ability for non-interference and patient analysis. It demands also a unique gift for resisting anxiety in one's self and not being panicked into precipitate action by the anxiety of the person one is trying to help.

The question immediately arises — are teachers the kind of persons best equipped to undertake such a task? By training, and possibly by disposition, they are certainly not.

Taken as a group teachers are inclined to be individuals who are accustomed (if not inclined) to direct, command, decree, enact, pontificate, request, ordain, prescribe, impose, bid, enjoin, charge, call upon, instruct, insist, summon, beckon, promulgate, call, send, judge, assess and otherwise decide for others what they ought to do.

It has been estimated that in the course of his paid duties (leaving aside what he may do at home with his own children, and his wife for that matter) the average teacher issues upwards of 250 edicts a day — ranging from, 'Now all sit down' to 'If I catch you doing that again I'll . . .' — which he expects to

be instantly obeyed.

One will, I feel sure, be excused for wondering whether an individual who has been engaged, and who is the kind of person who chooses to be professionally engaged, in so much pontification is really the best possible person to select for training as a pupil counsellor — using the word in its passive and best sense.

Half a life-time spent in pushing other people around — no matter how gently and, of course, for their own good — may not necessarily be the optimum preparation for listening, questioning, assessing and enquiring into the inward, subjective experience of a youngster who is not sure where he is going and cannot comprehend the subtle forces surrounding him and emerging within him.

It is very fortunate, since teachers are already being trained (how well, one wonders) for counselling work with pupils, that in recent years the teaching role has, here and there, been undergoing some slight transmutations. A new concept of the role of the teacher can be seen in many tutorial classes, schools for maladjusted children and occasionally, very occasionally, in the ordinary secondary school.

The interesting fact is that these are the very people — probably because they have given some thought to the matter and are aware of their own omnipotent fantasies — who are clamouring for specialised training. They want to stop pushing and arguing, and persuading and deciding for others, especially young others who are all too easily manipulated, and therefore need special protection against well-intentioned but ill-informed do-goodery.

How long will it take for any adult generation to understand that the legitimate prayer of the adolescent is best expressed by misquoting Robbie Burns: 'Oh wad some power the giftie gie us to be ourselves and care a damn sight less how others see us?'

The link between good counselling and psychotherapy is everywhere apparent, and it is a link which needs to be encouraged and fostered in the training of individuals, whether teachers or not, who intend to train as counsellors.

There is no other discipline outside psychotherapy

that anywhere near begins to explore the hinterland of the human mind, the dynamic quality of unconscious motives, the conflicts resulting from transference phenomena, and the extent to which the individual is **not** the master of his own fate.

No other training can hope to equip the counsellor with that humility, that respect for the innate value of others, as does a therapeutic training. It also offers, as nothing else does (and this is the salient argument), an insight into one's own motives, personal myopia, and personality structure.

No training which ignores the hinterland of the trainee's own mind can be worth a candle. Bruno Bettelheim makes exactly this point in two brilliant sentences. 'Much of modern psychology seeks to know about others,' he writes, 'too much of it, in my opinion, without an equal commitment to knowing the self. But I believe that knowing the other — which is different from knowing about the other — can only be a function of knowing oneself.'

I do not wish to be thought for a moment to be suggesting that counsellors should train to be, or consider themselves to be, psychotherapists. I may be suggesting, and my conviction tends that way, that they ought to be trained, in part at least, **by** psychotherapists. For only those who have experienced the rigours of an enquiry into themselves will possess the cohesive core of self-awareness which alone makes theory and learning coherent and convincing.

My final word concerns yet another popular British failing. We tend to think in a slipshod fashion, and one result of this unendearing trait is an inclination to conclude that if a thing looks like another thing at first glance it is the same thing, or as good as the same thing. An example of this came my way when an inspector of schools told me that he thought approved schools were 'very like' schools for maladjusted children. Actually this statement was no more than an accurate measure of the virgin state of his own knowledge. The real danger, however, stemmed not from this mistaken view but from his second incorrect assumption that any teacher who had worked in an approved school would be 'as good as any other' to take over the headship of a school for maladjusted children. Unfortunately, under our educational system, a school inspector not only has the ability to make

weird statements of this kind but to act upon them!

In the field of pupil counselling there is a similar danger in assuming that anyone who 'looks like' a counsellor may be 'as good as' anyone else in the job. On the surface a neurotic teacher whose involvement in the personality difficulties of others is his way of avoiding looking at his own, a clergyman whose moral position may be a sanctified form of sado-masochism, a teacher who is too inept to succeed in the classroom but happens to possess a bland visage, may all look 'very like' counsellors and may be simply dying to be considered as such. And, on present showing, they may well get appointed.

And behind this booby-trap lies another. The local education authority, very possibly harbouring a not-too-well hidden suspicion of counselling as being another noxious American-psychological importation, may well appoint people as counsellors who are patently unfitted for the job. When they fail — as they must — to show that they are worth their salt, the LEA will appear to be well within its rights to condemn the whole scheme root and branch.

Counselling will come, because it is needed: often in the small school, always in the mammoth comprehensive. My hope is that when it comes it will be good.

Good enough to comfort the parents, good enough to convince the doubting, frugal LEA, good enough, above all else, to uncover and serve the child's real need.

I sincerely hope also that it will also be good enough not to be denigrated and trivialized by the ematic term 'pastoral care', which carries with it all the unctuous, sanctimonious condescension which one associates with sentimental yet chilly and untutored ecclesiastical charity.

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Macro- and Micro-Theory of Education¹ - An Economist's View

J. R. Bellerby M.C., M.A.

I. STRUCTURE OF MACRO-THEORY

Under a scheme announced by Education Services in 1966, adjudicators and advisers were appointed to make recommendations for awards or acknowledgments in respect of books published² in English since 1st January 1965, and before 1st October 1966, on the social aims of education. Of the volumes brought to the advisers' notice,³ several are reviewed in these pages in so far as they bear on the present theme.

In the announcement, reference was made to a six-page statement issued by Education Services under the title **Social Purposes of Education**, the introduction to which says: 'The present leaflet does not presume to define such purposes comprehensively; objects other than those mentioned here may be considered to be of equal importance, and to be attainable.' The leaflet is intended to serve as a guide to enquirers, and an **aide memoire** to others concerned with the awards. Implicitly it calls to mind that the aims of education are not one, but many. Towards the end of the Nineteenth Century the utilitarian principle was supreme in education, as in political economy and application of the utilitarian school system, with often found expression in extreme emphasis on some single alternative principle. This generated much new-educational thought, but it tended also

to obscure some of the virtues of the older methods. However misguided the traditional system may have been in neglecting certain simple psychological conditions affecting the process of learning, the remedy is certainly not to attempt to replace it by another in which there is the same tendency to raise some single aim to a position of monopoly.

The Newest Education, it will be maintained, is a plan of education which recognises many social aims as co-equal. If there is a supreme principle, it is to bring all aims into balance. There are some purposes or considerations which, at times, **appear** to be in mutual conflict: the need for avoiding excessive anxiety in the present, and the need to prepare the learner to face a tensely competitive world; immediate concentration on self and self-development, having in mind the possibility of using the self as a responsible social agent during adult life; the attainment of individuality and independence, and at the same time practice in adjustment to a team; ability to lead, and willingness to support good leadership; training for economic work, and training for use of leisure. This list of apparently contrasting aims is by no means exhaustive: but it suggests how difficult may be the task of achieving equilibrium among them, and how important is the attempt to do so.

Members of Education Services, having recognised the multiplicity of educational purposes, first decided to exchange thought on what might be selected as the most important purpose of education for the Trust itself to serve. Six members agreed to pool suggestions. Six different answers were submitted. There was no means of deriving from them a highest common factor; all aims were quite distinct.

Briefly the six aims indicated in the **Social Purposes** leaflet are:

- (1) To strengthen the **appetite** for learning.
- (2) To make school activity as pleasurable as is consistent with the further independent aim of **long-term efficiency in learning**.
- (3) To create a **sense of responsibility**, and give opportunity for experience of leadership and democratic method.

1. This paper has emerged after much consultation, and I am grateful to all whose ideas have influenced its findings. To Mr J. B. Annand, Hon. Secretary of Education Services, I express particular appreciation for continuous help and advice. Reviews contributed by him have been reproduced and woven into the theme in Sections III and IV. To the Council of Education Services I am indebted for the fruits of many discussions: the responsibility for opinions expressed is exclusively mine, but it will be seen that the point of departure is the Council's agreed statement of principle, which governs much of the later development. J.R.B.

2. A second scheme deals with unpublished manuscripts, and will be described elsewhere.

3. Not necessarily submitted by the author. Special acknowledgments have been made to two writers whose work has been recognised as making an outstanding contribution to research into the social purposes of education: H. L. Elvin, author of **Education and Contemporary Society**, 1965; and R. F. Mackenzie, author of **Escape from the Classroom**, 1965. Ways of acknowledging or aiding the further work of others, mentioned later, are being considered.

4. Methuen, 1965, 30s.

(4) To develop **good relationships, the art of community.**

(5) To produce people who, being themselves **respected as persons**, respect all others as persons.

(6) To give all pupils, before they leave school, some understanding of the **conditions in the social environment** needed for the fulfilment of all as individuals.

In the study of educational method it would seem to be helpful, if we may borrow from the language of economics, to distinguish between macro-theory and micro-theory of education. Macro-theory may be described as an attempt to get the whole of the educational system on one canvas, in such a way as to show some form of synthesis or inter-relationship among the parts. Micro-theory deals with a particular delineated part, in the greatest possible detail, but with recognition that it is related to the whole, and that the analysis of it may lead to findings of interest for macro-theory. These distinctions may be illustrated from the books about to be reviewed.

Of the studies which fall most clearly within the field of macro-theory, reference may be made first to **The Sociology of Education**,⁴ by P. W. Musgrave. An outstanding impression from this work is how vast is the subject of education! Admittedly the author gives it the widest possible definition, inasmuch as he regards the family as no less important than the school as an instrument of education and, in addition, he pays much attention to two other agencies, the social class and the national economy. It is certainly salutary to bear constantly in mind that the school has rivals — and at some points allies — in aiding and guiding the learner.

In Part II of the book, Musgrave disclaims any intention to discuss social aims as such. He writes:

‘In this analysis it is not the aim or purpose of the schools or any one school that is being considered, although this will be implicit in the way that the educational system is organized. To revert to the analogy of the car, we are not considering where the car is going or that it is carrying passengers, but the question is rather whether the car is going well and carrying its passengers in an efficient manner. Such an analysis can be free of value judgments. The social scientist should be willing to bow to the

philosopher and learn from him the skills of classifying the aims of education. But once this is done he can undertake a neutral analysis of how the educational system is functioning. From this he can help in the understanding and right working of the country’s educational provision.

‘This analysis will not only be of the internal working of the various parts of the educational system from primary school to university, but also of the relations between these parts and between the educational system and other social institutions, such as the family or the economy.’

The author proceeds however to enumerate the ‘social functions’ of education under five headings. The first social function he mentions is ‘the transmission of the culture of society’, by which he implies the conservative task of ensuring that what is sound in the behaviour pattern of one generation shall be transmitted to the next. This is not far removed from saying that a function of education is to initiate the young in the art of community, and in democratic responsibilities (cf. points 3 and 4 in the list of six social aims given earlier); and indeed Musgrave shows later that this truly interprets his mind. In any event, it is the function of education to assist in preserving the good in the social culture, and in eliminating whatever is not good; and until a judgment has been formed on the desired facets of the culture to be transmitted it is impossible to discuss realistically how well the ‘function’ is being performed.

Two other functions pin-pointed in the **Sociology of Education** are: ‘the provision of innovators’; and ‘the political function’, signifying the supply of political leaders ‘at all levels of a democratic society’. To encourage initiative, or provide opportunity for leadership, is surely an ‘aim’. Other aims are implicit in Musgrave’s emphasis on the importance of social ‘selection’ and the ‘economic function’.

As an exercise in macro-theory, his study breaks new ground, and the lay-out of the book is so self-commending that the question is prompted whether it might not justly become standard. In the available space he could not exhaust any of the subjects raised, and much remains to be written: but ought the further material to be presented within the same kind of framework?

With some provisos, the answer might well be, Yes. Before a fair answer can be given, it seems necessary to decide whether education, as a subject of study, is to be regarded specifically as an applied science, or as something else at present undefined.

To attach the word 'Sociology' to the title does not seem to make the study in any less degree 'applied'. If education as a subject is therefore to be pursued in this practical setting, the author would not be justified in yielding to philosophers the role of deciding what the aims should be. Apart from the interesting fact that the modern dynasty of philosophers for the most part reject the role, in a democracy every voice is equal in value judgments.

Much illumination on the subject of values and aims is to be gained from the work of two other educators whose books are considered in the next section, and we must return to the study of the question there.

Musgrave has made a further large contribution in discussing in detail a principle that fails to receive due public attention, though in broad statement it is obvious. In a sociological view of education it is necessary to have concern for the interest of the community as a whole, and to recognise that the national total of educational resources, especially trained manpower, should be distributed in such a way that the nation's pool of capabilities is developed to the full and employed where it is most needed. He shows, as others have shown, that in Britain there is a great wastage of potential talent. As the detail of his narrative unfolds, the reader gains a picture of important sectors of the economic system, revealing how fully they depend on special skills which could never be developed in quantity without an extensive and purposive educational system, nor fully utilised without the means of directing new talent into fields where it is most in demand. He calls attention to the exacting and changing needs of the various branches of the economy as their methods and mechanisms become more complex. The reader is stirred to appreciation of how urgent is the need for basically well-trained and suitably distributed personnel, for raising standards of income and culture, leisure, travel, international opportunity and further education itself. The utilitarian principle is seen to be something momentous and deeply humanitarian.

II. EXAMPLES OF MACRO-THEORY

From the Director of the University of London Institute of Education, H. L. Elvin, comes a most penetrating enquiry into the current state of the English educational system. The problems with which his book, **Education and Contemporary Society**,¹ is mainly concerned, include the extension of education to those who have had too little, improvement of the quality of education, and problems of the relationship between education and rapid changes in society.

This approach to macro-theory begins with a statement of present social and economic conditions affecting education. As a member of the Robbins Committee, the author was involved in a close and comprehensive study of educational requirements in England, and of the available means of satisfying them. With this background and other resources he has assessed, in this more individual work, various possible ways of modifying the system to yield certain values which he regards as supreme.

The analysis, in Part I, of the social environment within which English educational policy is determined is essential to the structure of the book; but it is Part II which bears most directly on the theme of this review. The work as a whole is planned teleologically to converge on the discussion, in a final section, of 'Values and Education in Contemporary Society'. Five groups of values to be achieved by education are distinguished and discussed.

Intellectual values are placed first in order, and are regarded as essential to all others. How warmly one reacts to the phrase: 'It is sometimes forgotten that schools, colleges and universities have one role that is quite distinctive: it is to teach the young to **think**. There is no other social agency that has the responsibility for doing this systematically.' If the corresponding words in our Social Purposes leaflet — that the aim is 'to enable the learner to **enjoy thought**' — appear to show a difference, it is only because we believe the outlook to be bleak for any citizen who is not stimulated to go on thinking for the rest of his life. Elvin's wording conveys the further concept that thinking is a logical process, usually an acquired process, achieved by disciplined study and by contact with other minds through languages and science, and that the educational

system is the recognised fount and authority for conferring this value.

There follows a section on 'technical' values, potentially in conflict with 'liberal' values. Technical education is indispensable in modern society, but there is a danger that it may be given such over-riding priority as to prejudice training for the 'liberal' values relating to the individual's fulfilment as a reader, thinker or follower of the arts, or as an amateur historian or philosopher, or, not least, a qualified voter. The author's solution to the conflict between the two types of value is, first, to avoid early specialisation, whether in schools or colleges, and secondly, to ensure that the approach to technical education itself is such that the learner is introduced to basic principles before he studies applied techniques.

These proposals were not arrived at without a detailed examination of the current position in schools and colleges, the causes of bias in favour of technical values, and all possible means of revising policies to gain an improved balance.

Next in the list of values to be considered are those which relate to personal attitudes, or points of view, acquired at school. A most thought-inspiring section deals with the desirability of co-operation, especially between people of differing metaphysical views, on the teaching of those moral values which are as indispensable to society as the are simple in concept. The author advocates urgently that a part of the curriculum of older scholars be devoted to the study of ethics. This should be by 'open-ended' discussion in which the pupils themselves take a leading part. Subjects of special concern to them, of which there are many, would be debated. Discussion would proceed, not on the basis of commandments, which in fact preclude discussion, but in the light of accepted notions of fair play, regarding all others as persons, and acceptance of responsibility. Elvin considers it imperative to introduce special courses for training teachers in conducting ethical discussion. An apt quotation from Professor Stebbing (p. 198) proclaims that all men 'know that hatred, cruelty, intolerance, and indifference to human misery are evil; that love, kindness, tolerance, forgiveness and truth

are good,' a corollary being that all might readily unite, whatever their religious views, in enabling the young to ponder these things.

The discussion of 'community values' is doubtless left to the end because that is the place of chief emphasis. The author favours comprehensive schools: he considers them to be a powerful agency for creating true community. In his view the existing system is divisive. It produces castes.

There will be advantage in pooling the thoughts of three authors on this problem of community-creating. The third is a headmaster who knows exactly what he wants for his own school. Tolerance of the views of others is not apparent in his forceful writing, and this is partly because he would convey a message.

Escape from the Classroom² is an exhilarating account of experiments by R. F. Mackenzie and his staff in developing what he hopes may become a new system of education. Its keynote is the stimulus to learning that is derived from introducing pupils to the geology, history, natural life and beauty of their own countryside. In some respects the story is unfinished. At the time of going to press the author had not attained his chief practical aim, the purchase of a country residence suitably placed and large enough for the full evolution of the proposed system. As the account of the experiment thus depends on illustration from a rural 'laboratory' deemed to be inadequate, the due balance in the prospective overall curriculum could not be shown.

This limitation has however some compensations. As a piece of art, **Escape from the Classroom** is superb. The fascination of the new approach is conveyed with the swift strokes of a pen that is untrammelled by digressions or abstractions, but describes in detail whatever a hawk's-eye view reveals of the varied expeditions of each adventuring rural group.

The method requires that learning should appear to be incidental. A staff member adopting it must be able to spark off discussion casually from any event or object encountered during the day. Trees, stark and blackened by lightning, may

lead to the enquiry, what is lightning? and thence to an oral explanation or reference book. The sight of a tree apparently growing beneath a lake's surface may prompt discussion on hydro-electricity, dams, the conveyance of power, and the gains and losses from siting a generating plant in the heart of a scene of rare natural delight. Trekking in new country should give rise to map-reading and intensive geography; an outcrop of rock to local geology; bleached bones or relics to aspects of natural science, history, pre-history or evolution; an isolated, unprosperous croft to soil reclamation; changing weather to the causes of rainfall; a news item to anything on earth; the day or night sky to everything outside the earth.

Genius of a special quality is needed for this approach to teaching, and Mr. Mackenzie appears to have picked his team well. As a method it does not stand alone, otherwise it might seem somewhat haphazard: it is combined with more deliberately arranged contacts with industries, administrations, police routines and social services in 'Coal Town'; and the two forms of reconnaissance of the outer world are intended to enliven work in the class-room through links with reality.

The author maintains that all his pupils become in some way different when released from their Coal Town restraints and given the freedom of the Highlands. The great majority enjoy the experience and benefit from it. On the 'problem child' there is an instant effect through living in wild country and facing its challenge in a social group. Were there a possibility of more of the same treatment, many problems arising from the child's maladjustment to restrictive urban and family conditions would totally disappear.

For all concerned at the school there is an over-riding purpose. The author declares:

'What a variety of knowledge our pupils can pick up on a day's march.

'But there is a much simpler reason for taking pupils wandering over the hills of Lochaber. It is

just this, that away up there, unhurried and untroubled, our lives take on, although temporarily, a largeness and a generosity, and a confidence and a feeling that there is no human problem that we couldn't cope with. If during the three or four years of their secondary schooldays we could help our pupils not merely to experience briefly this escape into a larger life but to be influenced by it over a much longer period, I believe we would be making an impact on the whole course of their lives.'

As the author fully recognises, time is the enemy of this method. He presents it as a scheme of school education which should wholly replace the traditional system, for which he has nothing but disapproval. Viewed in this light the method is to be judged at least partly on the basis of the time taken to gain results. There are other handicaps — for example, cost, and the effect on the countryside if all schools were as exacting as Mackenzie in demanding remote, unspoiled and as nearly as possible virgin land as their place of retreat. Nevertheless the drawbacks cannot cancel all that is positive in this imaginative plan. Even though the spread of the method may be restricted by the expense of reaching or building ever more remote country residences, there is here enunciated a principle which must at least be set against other principles. The author of **Escape from the Classroom** believes that he has found a method which would induce the entire population of ordinary school attenders to learn to **think**. Let us accept, as a hypothesis, that it might prove to be the best method for, say, 60-70 per cent of the population. In view of the time element, might we say that for a further 20 per cent. who can gain stimulus more rapidly in other ways, the method should be used sparingly; and that for the remainder, who would themselves prefer the extreme ardours of a purely mental gymnasium to the raw deal of a highland climate and what some might denigrate as an attempt to absorb object lessons in squelching boots, maximum efficiency would demand a more orthodox approach. The actual percentages are unimportant. Manifestly it is impossible to regard all members of the human race from 5 to 16 as being the **same kind of stuff**, responding in the same

manner and degree to the same stimuli, needing the same kind of assistance, facing the same inner impediments, and acquiring varied mental faculties at the same speed.

Concerning the ways in which children in fact differ, more will be said in later pages. At this stage, where we are considering the work of three authors whose views are apparently not wholly in accord, it is pertinent to note that their difference in accent or focus has a bearing on the problem 'to stream or not to stream'. If we assume that something of the order of 60-70 per cent of children up to 16 will do better under the Mackenzie treatment than they would under a primarily classroom system, and if it is agreed that the emphasis should differ in the teaching of the others, does this not suggest that there should be some measure of streaming at all ages, in the sense that every learner should ideally have an **individual time-table**³ allowing access to classes or activities adapted to his needs?

1. Watts, 1965, 15s.

2. Collins, 1965, 18s.

3. This in itself does not imply individual **tutoring**.

III. MICRO-THEORY IN RELATION TO MACRO-THEORY

Attention is now to be given to studies which, having a narrower focus, appertain to what has been called the micro-theory of education. As a first step in discussing them it may be useful to consider the possible scope of such theory, in part through illustration.

One area of research which falls within micro-theory is the classification of minds. The minds of the young differ widely in respect of many faculties: innate linguistic skill, nature and capacity of memory, ability to deal in abstractions, artistic perception or performance, and other important qualities. Whereas differences of this kind have often led to specialisation by scholars in a comparatively narrow field, it would seem that, were enough known about their minds, they could be given a

choice of **methods of study** enabling them to succeed in a much wider range of subjects.

It is evident, for example, that there are several different kinds of memory, and that this may have implications for adjusting the technique of learning to the nature of the memory. A given learner may remember words or phrases without effort, but not figures or formulae; or vice versa. His memory may be good for visual pictures, but poor for oral or written description; good for poetry, poor for music; good for fifteen minutes (interpreter, waitress), poor for 24 hours, or 12 months; good for cause and effect or other relationship, poor for inert fact. The last of these differences is probably the most important from the standpoint of adjusting teaching methods.

There are some children who possess from an early age the ability to soak into their memory discrete fact upon fact. They can absorb anything. They need no memory aids. They gain nothing from linking one fact with another: indeed, links, after a time, merely become confusing. There is another type of mind for which a link between any two facts, by adding meaning to both, makes both take root in the memory. Particularly is this so if the link shows cause and effect. For such minds it is easier to remember a chain of mutually related dates than one isolated date. A theorem, or a system of causation, once perceived, cannot be forgotten. The mode of working of a piece of machinery, however complicated, stays in the mind in detail, and the absence or defectiveness of any part is discovered through remembrance of the total casual system.

Let us suppose that in respect of memory there are two dominant types of mind: the 'pure-memory' mind which requires no aids, and the 'associative-memory' mind which is always assisted by evidence of causal or other relationship. Needless to say, these two types are at the extremes of a scale in which each mind differs only infinitesimally from its neighbour. But in the teaching of history, for example, it will be found that pupils whose minds are near the 'associative-memory' end of the scale will assimilate and enjoy the various forms of stream-history — say the evolution

of the system of government down the centuries; waves of growth in the economy and evidence of the causes of exceptional growth; major advances in the fight for personal liberties; revolutions in power and therefore in transport — and will find this approach to history immeasurably more helpful than the 'horizontal' method of period description embracing everything from kings and ships to cabbages and sealing-wax in a given dynasty or reign. Geography will appeal to the 'associative-memory' minds if it is presented more as the end-product of geological change, climate and economic growth, than as straightforward enumeration of counties, capitals, industries, physical features and places of note. Literature will come to life for them where it relates to the achievement of significant purpose, as in the biographies of inventors or discoverers, or in the narration of empire building or revolution.

Another immensely important distinction in the analysis of minds is that between what may be called the mental-arithmetic mind and the manual-contact or visual-contact mind. In the past, it seems that teachers have often been preponderantly of the one type while the majority of their pupils have been of the other, and communication between them has been poor. It is in emphasising the importance of manual or visual contact that the new education of the present century has introduced radical improvements in methods. Much more development is possible. In the process, however, it will be imperative to recognise that some minds work faster without these means of contact. For them a mental picture replaces the actual picture, and in turn the mental picture is condensed into an abstraction, a memory of a series of associated forces, a system represented by symbols or equations, or by one of the many devices of representation making possible the compacting of a vast and detailed reality into a manageable shorthand mental picture. Minds which have potentially the power of abstract thought will gain from being given opportunity to exercise and strengthen their special powers in the most appropriate setting.

Certain links between this and macro-theory are obvious. If it becomes possible to evolve a

detailed classification of minds, and then to devise the means of adjusting techniques of study to the mental structure of learners, three of the principal aims of education will be more fully attainable. (1) The process itself involves a painstaking attempt to treat every scholar as a **person**, and to do it in a way that would be more likely to be flattering than offensive. (2) Any success implies increased **efficiency of learning**. (3) **Selection** of school-leavers for **work in industry and professions** will be on a basis of fairly exact knowledge of their existing and potential **types** of capabilities.

It is evident that virtually every branch of micro-theory will have some contribution to make towards solving the problems of macro-theory.

In **Residential Work with Children**, (Pergamon Press, 45s.) Richard Balbernie describes in detail the residential setting in which his work with deprived children at that school was carried on. The book is an extremely well-documented study of aims and means associated with the care of children ravaged by parental inadequacy or neglect. In relation to the size of the organisation and staff of the residential school, the number of pupils is small, but the work is so exacting that a higher ratio would scarcely be practicable. Many of the young residents are in need of some form of psychotherapy: indeed they present problems which have proved intractable to other schools. The task confronting Balbernie's staff is not merely to equip their charges intellectually to enter employment, but also to restore them to the community, and if possible to their families, as stable, contented and willingly constructive members.

The book would be valuable if it held no more than the vivid case-histories of individual pupils. These tell their story of the family background, the deep causes of sense of isolation and the compensating withdrawal or resentment, the various disruptive ways of fighting back, successes and failures of the staff in trying to change enmity into goodwill, the ending of the school career and the hopeful start of a new life or, sometimes, relapse.

The case histories lead on to further analysis of the special treatment necessary for some children **and their families**, if successful therapy is to result. This extension to the family is significant, as the last chapter does more than reveal with great honesty the limitations of even the best residential care at present provided in this country: it also looks forward to the creation of a new 'environmental agency', which would attempt to involve both the child's home and the surrounding community in his rehabilitation. Of the four Appendices, two in particular, relating to 'Background Information' and 'Later Effects of Early Deprivation', indicate how urgent is the necessity to forge an effective link between the therapeutic agency and the child's family, however defective the home may be.

It would be helpful to learn what proportion of Balbernie's problem children come from problem homes. Are the causes inherited from a chain of such homes, extending for some generations into the past? If the modern therapeutic agency has been successful in applying a remedy **at any point**, is the remedy one which the school system as a whole can apply? Assuming that ethical discussion is included in the curriculum on the lines recommended by Elvin, is it reasonable to expect that corrective ideas can be germinated through such discussion?

Clearly there are certain special advantages arising where the ratio of staff to pupils is inescapably high. In this situation the staff can learn much about the children's minds, including their intellectual make-up. Balbernie notes in one of the case histories that scholastic performance can be good, even where the personality is twisted and behaviour abnormal. Towards the classification of minds, therefore, much pertinent material might be drawn from his school's observations.

Undoubtedly the most important potential contribution to wider theory by a residential special school is through its experience of the techniques of improving relationships. Merely by refusing to accept defeat, and by continuing

to use initiative when the prospect holds nothing but discouragement, the staff of a residential or other therapeutic agency become expert, above all ordinary educators, in the arts of forging helpful contact between the teacher and the scholar and his home, between the scholar and his parents, and between the scholar and his community at school and elsewhere. Assuredly there is much to be gained from this experience in terms of general educational principle and the attainment of wider social purpose.

IV. MICRO-THEORY: (a) ASSESSMENT OF ATTITUDES

Recent publications give evidence of a growing interest in the study of conditions which determine human attitudes, and of the part which education may play in modifying them. More than half the volumes recently brought to the notice of Education Services bear directly on this subject; and others in which it is not a central theme contain valuable incidental suggestions on methods of influencing the basic attitudes of learners.

Considerable work remains to be done, for it cannot be said that there is agreement even on the due classification of those attitudes which are the concern of education. Some forms of broad classification seem **prima facie** reasonable, though all present difficulty. There are, on the one hand, attitudes which appear to be essentially subjective. That is, they reflect general 'postures of the mind' not dependent on, or related to, specific external conditions. Some people appear to have an innate disposition to assume responsibility involving independent decisions, while others find greater satisfaction in executing work laid down by authority; others relish nothing save freedom to pursue their own concern of the moment; and yet others are almost motive-less. Here we have a range of human states producing attitudes which find expression in the acceptance or non-acceptance of responsibilities of various kinds. Each attitude is 'subjective' in the sense that it arises out of the individual's personal make-up or philosophy of life. Other attitudes similar in this respect are: the propensity to be sociable or, alternatively, to withdraw from the social group; a pro-authority or anti-authority frame of mind; an aptitude for

enjoyment, as opposed to an enduring sense of the burden and menace of life; a constructive outlook, or an adversely critical and destructive habit of mind. Some of these attitudes may overlap in both origin and outcome, but all are within the classification distinguished as **primarily subjective**. On the other hand there are attitudes which come into effective operation only in relation to **external beings or stimuli**. There are pro and con sentiments or attitudes towards, for example, other races, other generations, animals, cosmic force, the teaching staff, parents or relatives. Between these extremes are the attitudes in which subjective and objective causal elements intermingle and are of more equal weight: the habitual response of the individual to different school subjects or games; to settlement in the home community or opportunity to emigrate; to marriage or postponement of marriage; or to different types of economic occupation.

It seems that there is likely to be difficulty in making a tidy classification on any basis. Another method, which might be more fully explored, would be to group the various attitudes according to their favouring or disavouring the attainment of particular social aims of education as presented in macro-theory.

Classification in pairs, each pair presenting opposites, e.g., toughmindedness — tendermindedness, appears often to be valuable for **measuring** the degree to which an attitude is present or is operative.

The importance of this method of pairing opposites is well illustrated in a book by Dr. K. M. Evans, **Attitudes and Interest in Education**, (Routledge and Kegan Paul, 16s.). The volume opens with a discussion of the development, consolidation and modification of various attitudes found particularly among children and students. Attention is then turned to the central problem of assessing, or quantifying, the degree of expression of specified attitudes, and of assessing the extent of their change over time. Examples are drawn from experiments in America and Britain, the techniques of measurement being described in some detail.

A particularly valuable section of Dr. Evans's work is the Appendix in which she describes her own experiment in assessing quantitatively the attitudes of grammar school pupils towards teaching as a career. The evident success of the experiment prompts the thought that it would be most desirable to extend measurement to a wide range of other attitudes, especially to those which have a social bearing.

This suggestion immediately raises a number of problems which, **prima facie**, are not easily solved. Most attitudes which affect the social order have a moral core. And whereas the strength task of a different order of complexity. To take of an individual's feelings towards some external matter may be measurable with fair precision, the assessment of his real attitude to any form of moral position, involving, say, self-discipline, or altruism, or other ethic, presents an extreme case, a questionnaire addressed to adolescents on post-marital fidelity will invariably show at least 75 per cent of 'attitudes' favourable to fidelity. This has no practical meaning. The real, operative attitude is more clearly shown in their action, whether at the time of answering the questionnaire or after marriage: and at neither stage is the action determinable with any assurance. The same kind of difficulty is met, though it may be less pronounced, in the attempt to assess the attitude to safe driving, to public property, to particular laws, or to any principle of personal action which bears on the social order. When individuals under test are asked to say what they think on these questions it must be extremely difficult to assess the answers in terms of their 'operative' attitude: it is what they do that is most pertinent. And there is no simple method of obtaining reliable objective data on any form of action which is illicit, or is of a kind that the individual would prefer to forget.

However, the ingenuity of applied psychologists appears to be inexhaustible. It is understood that a book by the Farmington Trust Research Unit is to appear in 1968, giving grounds for the belief that it should be practicable to educate adolescents morally, rather than indoctrinate them. The chief tasks of the Unit, to quote the

Director, John Wilson, are (a) to devise an effective 'verification system' for the morally educated person and (b) to find out what could be done in schools and elsewhere to improve their pupils in terms of the various component skills of morality. It seems probable therefore that considerable progress is being made in developing the study of the formation and measurement of attitudes into a distinct branch of macro-related micro-theory of education. The purpose implicit in this aspect of applied theory would be to show how the social aims of education could be attained more fully, and in due balance, by developing or influencing the attitudes of learners.

The attitude of adolescents to life in general is of cardinal concern. Despite the unprecedented output of means of entertainment, vast numbers of young people appear to suffer boredom. In view of the endless sprawl of streets and factories into the countryside, cutting down of forests and woods, pollution of streams, proliferation of commercial lines of transport, and urban development of the sea-coast, little difference remains between town and country within many miles of the chief urban centres. Hundreds of thousands of adolescents among the inhabitants of these built-up areas appear to have nothing to do but stand and stare. How far the pressure of boredom upon them is responsible for the war increasingly waged on society by a section of the young can only be conjectured, but clearly the question of relieving their condition deserves attention by skilled enquirers.

Among the varied attempts to counteract the effects of congestion, one imaginative campaign is recorded in the new edition of a book by Joe Benjamin, **In Search of Adventure** (National Council of Social Service, 10s. 6d.) Since 1950 a pioneer movement known as Adventure Playgrounds has promoted Local Government plans for adapting vacant sites in cities for use by children. This short history and assessment of the movement — for it is both — breaks new ground in that it attempts a serious study of the play and behaviour patterns observed in a number of centres as widely

spaced as London, Bristol, Liverpool and Grimsby. Earlier studies of individual centres, to which reference is made in the text, will be familiar to those particularly interested in this type of social activity; for others with perhaps a more general interest the volume under review gives an opportunity for comparative study.

It is of interest to note differences both in the origins of playgrounds and in the support given to them in different localities. Liverpool was the first city to take up the offer of the National Playing Fields Association to make capital grants and grants towards leaders' salaries for a two-year experimental period for each of two projects. It chose the Rathbone Street playground attached to the University Settlement as its starting point, and developed other playgrounds as a result. In Bristol, the first adventure playground owed its origin to an investigation into the stresses and strains of a developing community, whereas in Grimsby it was prompted by a photographic exhibition illustrating adventure playgrounds in Copenhagen, Minneapolis and London.

Grimsby has a further interest in that the urge to launch the playground came first and mainly from private individuals, only rather cautiously, even reluctantly, supported by local voluntary and statutory bodies. Parents took an active interest, as individuals rather than as an organised group, and the playground developed successfully, showing itself sensitive to changing needs, and to the needs of different age groups. Perhaps this sensitivity was helped by the children's own committee, elected by the leader, representing dens in different parts of the playground. Views and suggestions coming from this committee to the leader enabled him to bring them to the statutory committee to which he himself was responsible.

However warmly and gratefully the provision of playgrounds and junkyards may be welcomed — and indeed it is a privilege to be allowed to say a few words in support of the work described by Joe Benjamin — it is difficult to believe that this represents more than a thimbleful of water in a desert of need. One

outstanding contribution of the book is that it portrays the need. Implicitly it blazons an indictment of our civilisation: that the great majority of the children in our largest cities can scarcely avoid an attitude to life that is dictated by monotony, drabness, frustration and an exasperated search for activity capable of yielding a thrill. It is almost a truism that education holds the answer: that is, the long-term answer, the idea, and the means of spreading the idea. If for example, part of the idea is that a lower ratio of population to land will greatly help, it may require many years of educational effort before a majority even among authorities responsible for social provision can perceive the relationship between the size of family and the population, and between total population and the spread of streets and factories over the countryside.

The attitude to life may be in some measure influenced by thoughts of what may lie beyond life. Whether death is anticipated with apprehension or pleasure, with indifference, fortitude or down-right terror may be a matter of upbringing, religious belief, temperament or mood — 'Now more than ever seems it rich to die': 'When I have fears that I may cease to be'. (Keats). Poets, philosophers, artists, divines, scientists and other adults have spent much time and energy contemplating death, but little work has been done on how children think and feel about it: Mrs. Marjorie Mitchell's book, **The Child's Attitude to Death**, (Barrie and Rockcliffe, 25s.), does something to redress the balance.

When violence abounds it is important to try to discover how far young people's attitudes to dying and to killing are influenced by what they see around them, whether in war or a street accident, or vicariously on television and cinema screen. Mrs. Mitchell ranges from infancy to adolescence in her study of this aspect of society. First, she examines the influence of religious background, and she supports this examination by conversations noted while children are at play. One of these ends: 'We've killed a policeman.' 'He's gone to God'. 'We've sent him to God.' Later in this chapter

Mrs. Mitchell refers to the confusion of mind which, she feels, children derive from their religious education, and she maintains that Christianity has become the religion of death. She examines some of the 'agreed syllabuses' used in religious instruction in schools, and rebukes their ineptness and inadequacy.

The author then looks at the scientific background now provided by school life, and at changes in the sociological background against which children are nurtured, before she turns to myth, ritual and superstition. Study of these aspects of living may be considered as introductory to the main findings of the book, which are illustrated with telling examples of observed play, recorded conversations, and, in the case of older children, reference to their paintings and quotations from their written work, all of which reveals their ideas about death and their attitudes to it. Fear plays a large part in these — fear of death, of separation and bereavement.

Aggression and attitudes to war are discussed, and in a chapter on the Adolescent and Death the point is made that there is clear evidence that mass death, and mass killing — the shadow of the bomb — are both horrifying and terrifying to many young people. In their writings there is little evidence of hate, but much of deep revulsion.

The book ends on a positive note, and holds out a vision of the exciting world that scientists may help us to develop, in which life and the joy of life predominate, rather than its destruction and the fear of death.

V. MICRO-THEORY: (b) CREATION OF ATTITUDES

If it is desired to modify attitudes, or generate radically new ways of thought, an initial task of considerable weight must be accomplished — that of defining clearly **the combination of new attitudes** that it is socially desirable to create. This involves nothing less than an analysis of present world civilisation, to infer what motives are most needed to ensure its survival and further advance. Only a few broad comments are possible in the

present context, and these must be confined to the position in one country. In the United Kingdom there have lately been two types of socio-political trend, one highly beneficial, the other unhealthy and disturbing.

Enormous advances have been made in social and political organisation since the 'thirties. Virtually full employment has been maintained for a quarter of a century — a condition previously considered utterly Utopian. Accompanying this there has been a sustained movement towards equality at a higher average level of incomes, and the development of a comprehensive welfare state. Miracles of science have enabled most households to have the equivalent of a cinema in their parlour; they now can command the world's best and most popular music, drama, literature and reproduction of art; and they have access to outdoor visual entertainment of every variety. Working hours have been much reduced; annual holidays with pay are common; and everyone to whom leisure is important can enjoy a long week-end and fill it as he fancies. If the attitudes of all the people were receptive, and if there were no offsets to the new material gains, life would provide fulfilments to a degree unknown and unforeseen by earlier generations.

This is the bright side of the picture, and everyone should appreciate the achievement in it, But what of the reverse side? The standard of performance, or quality of output, over a large part of the field of production appears to have declined, and the trend continues downwards, substantially all areas of life being affected in some degree. It is impossible to obtain precise statistics of the recent changes, but the irritations, frustrations, hazards and petty anxieties which increasingly beset modern man's work, travel, leisure and concern as a consumer are surely more than a figment of the imagination.

These frustrations aggravate nervous strain, and there is little relief. The pressure of life especially in towns is such that neural complaints are seriously increasing. Despite the huge and growing sums spent on the national health service, its agencies are for the most part

severely overstrained.

Books on sociology constantly emphasise the decline in personal responsibility, leading to the absence or inadequacy of home life for children.

Social Education

Whether for good or ill the controversial credal asseverations of religion draw more attention than its solid teaching on attitudes. Apparently more people now look to the system of education for new effort in attitude creation, than to the church or to parents. However, the situation, as revealed by current trends, is serious enough to call for a combined campaign by all parties. As H. L. Elvin has cogently urged, the occasion is one for co-operation, in particular, by those of divergent beliefs. Well-intentioned people cannot fail to agree, he holds, on the good and evil implicit in the attitudes listed by Professor Stebbing (reproduced in Section II above). We would comment that if to these were added the single ethic, 'Be responsible', the widespread observance of this comparatively simple code in the nation's life and industry would assuredly reverse the creeping maladies now threatening British society.

When a suggestion for joint effort thus comes from a humanist source, it surely must be greeted with acclamation by people of all faiths, especially by the religious who, believing in the existence of a responsible overall creator-Mind, seek to place themselves in imagination in the seat of responsibility of such a Mind, and to think and act accordingly. Such a posture, fully applied, would make the individual not only a world citizen, with concern for every nation, every human being, and every other created thing of feeling, beauty or style, including animals, trees and all that is fair on the earth's face; it would make him also a ready co-operator with others who attain a similar attitude, by whatever process of thought.

The social problem of the future is therefore not primarily one of securing intellectual agreement on the basic human attitudes which will enable civilisation to survive and develop:

rather, the task is, with all urgency and concern, to set in motion every medium capable of spreading the agreed attitudes. This means, in the first place, bringing the matter to the notice of adults.

To refer again to Musgrave's analysis, the most powerful agencies of education include the economic system and the heads of families, that is, a group comprising all elders socially responsible or industrially occupied. If modern trends are adverse, it is because of the changing quality of this adult group. And if future well-being is threatened, the chief reason is that their common standards are liable to be transmitted to their younger successors.

It is not easy to perceive how any educational movement can make an impact on this large senior group — at present virtually untouched by public education — without adopting at least some of the cardinal features of religious or ideological organisations. Dr. Evans in **Attitudes and Interests in Education** draws attention to four factors which play an important part in inducing an individual to change his basic thought pattern. First, if he can be persuaded to act in a particular way corresponding to a desired attitude, the action in due course proves stronger than any previous opinion contrary to it, and causes the subject to approve consciously of the outlook that coincides with the new behaviour. If the new outlook and behaviour commend themselves to him as ethically sound, they tend to endure¹. Secondly, new points of view become most strongly held if the individual reaches them by a process of independent reasoning, or through discussion in which he is a free and active participant. This indicates the value of using the group method of communication in all ethical education. Thirdly, experience has shown that it is sometimes easier to change the opinion of the majority of a group than to convert a single individual to a new way of thought. Where there is a group already in being, and especially where its philosophy is clear and is fully understood by the members, its persuasive power is very great. Fourthly, new attitudes are more readily acquired and confirmed when the introduction to them is in

pleasurable conditions and when a sense of personal fulfilment continues to accompany action conforming to them.

The explicit function of a church is to become expert in the use of all the four aids mentioned; and a church — or a political cadre, or a military unit — has a further even more potent means which Dr. Evans could not readily take into account. Nothing changes a man's outlook more radically than making a present of his entire self to a cause. Between 1914 and 1919 and again between 1931 and 1945 self-giving became a habit. The resulting changes in personality were not always for the better. Some presented themselves to the Forces, some to the Communists, some to the Fascists and Nazis, and a few to the Quakers and other Christian bodies. Many underwent a marked change, or sometimes intensification, of attitude. It is the privilege of religious and ideological movements that they may claim, not merely the attention of members to a system of ideas, but a new orientation of their entire way of life.

Though it may be necessary to make use of historical precedents in devising the modern approach to adults, some new methods may be more suitable for schools. All with long memories will recall how critical and anti-suggestible they were in their early struggle to gain mental freedom. This healthy reaction is respected in the new education. Both Elvin and Evans have pointed to the necessity for open-endedness of all schoolroom discussions where attitudes are concerned, and it is implicit in Mackenzie's method. Points (2) and (4) in Dr. Evans's list are particularly important.

Certain specific ways in which the growth of social attitudes may be stimulated, while the principles of thought-freedom are fully observed, will be briefly considered here, partly by reference to recent studies: (1) use of suitable school practices; (2) ethical discussion; (3) study of Applied History, or selected forms of 'stream' history; (4) social and international studies or contacts.

(1) The Group Method of Communication

embraces a wide range of varied democratic or corporate activities enabling pupils to express a flair for leadership or the faculty of social adjustment. Drama, debates, choral and orchestral music, class magazines and contests, all organised by the scholars; democratic courts; organisation of the school into 'families', each comprising children of all ages; treks, geology and geography expeditions, gymnasium and endurance tests planned by the scholars; group research into local industry and services; parent receptions, displays, sports and other school events; collections and work for social and international aid — the scope for group action by scholars is virtually limitless. Mackenzie's book, **Escape from the Classroom**, abounds in detailed descriptions of corporate enterprises, each permitting the exercise of social goodwill. A problem confronting those who would employ such methods, to give opportunity for leadership and the exercise of democratic concern, is to fit the method to the stage of development of the scholars. The most important **limiting** factor arises from the nature of education itself. A very large part of the basic task of furnishing the human mind is an individual matter, accomplished by the individual himself through unaided concentrated exertion of his mental faculties: hence a due balance is needed between this and methods involving the spread of responsibility and some loss of individual focus.

(2) Concerning ethical discussion, we would again quote **Education and Contemporary Society**, which advocates the special training of staff in the means of encouraging scholars to evolve their own principles of conduct. It is one of the facts of life that the chief sufferers in a social group that lacks ordinary discipline and fair behaviour are the members of the group itself. This becomes obvious as soon as the members are permitted to express their thoughts and analyse their discomforts.

(3) An agency which lays special emphasis on 'stream' history as a means of strengthening social motive is Pictorial Charts Educational Trust. Of their 250 (or more) charts which deal with physics, chemistry, biology, economics,

sociology, religion, psychology, politics, history, geography, art, literature, music and other subjects within the school curriculum, approximately 100 present the material as a stream of development over time. Where the progress displayed has involved human struggle or strife, the chart prompts the question — often explicitly — What is the next stage? The chart is a deliberate attempt to engage the viewer's personal concern. If the teacher wishes, he may use the chart to aid discussion on the human cost and the means of renewed progress. Pupils will appreciate that they are personally involved in a stream of evolution and revolution composed of innumerable trends, and that their own studies and actions may influence the trends for better or worse.

The same principle is implicit in the subject which may suitably be called Applied History. This denotes the examination of all relevant past experience with a view to deriving inferences for current and future public policy. Anyone who lends himself to this form of enquiry, or seeks to become conversant with its findings, is thereby socially active. As previously noted, sound motives expressed in action become confirmed and strengthened.

(4) Lastly, the object of influencing patterns of thought may be to produce specific attitudes deemed to be particularly necessary at the given moment of history: and for this purpose it may be possible to devise comprehensive courses of study. The attitude of world citizenship is a case in point. Again, Pictorial Charts Educational Trust have assembled a variety of visual aids designed to impart an international outlook; and in this they have recently gained inspiration from the imaginative plans of Dr. James Henderson. Some of Henderson's proposals for world studies are described in his book, **Look Out**, (N.E.F., 1966, 5s.), a collection of papers inspired by the conviction that it is the role of modern education to devise a plan of studies for leading the new inheritors of the earth towards international understanding and co-operation. There is no means of reproducing in a few words the author's education plan, but his conclusion² is most apposite to this paper:

'Could it be that one of the major tasks . . . in the coming years will be to campaign for the injection everywhere into the bloodstream of education of the idea of world peace through world law? Without law, children become the victims of the 'Lord of the Flies'; that lesson has already been painfully learned by them and their elders in the majority of the nation-states they occupy: unless they can speedily learn it on a world basis their prospects are non-existent.

'For law to be effective, it must flow from an authority sufficiently recognised and powerful to carry an ultimate moral sanction, which can inform all purely legal sanctions.'

NOTES

1. There are evident dangers when this method is falsely applied — see later, p.8. Unethical behaviour may also show great durability.
2. The final paragraph here quoted is from the first page of Henderson's conclusion.

Canada's Educational Revolution: A Centennial Vision

Dr Anthony Paplauskas Ramunas*

'Le destin du Canada est donc d'assimiler, conformément à des principes qui joueront sur le plan économique, politique et culturel, tout ce qui est excellent dans son passé et tout ce qu'il peut prendre d'excellent en Grande-Bretagne, en France, aux Etats-Unis, en Europe, en Afrique et en Asie, laissant de côté tout ce qui dégrade l'homme, devenant par le fait même un Etat-modèle parfaitement en harmonie avec l'esprit et la lettre de la charte des Nations unies.' André Rossinger.

'The world-wide position today is not how to unite by wiping out all differences, but how to unite with

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all differences intact . . . When natural differences find their harmony, then is true harmony.'
Rabindranath Tagore.

'It is inconceivable that the heirs to the great Anglo-French civilization should be unable to find a brotherly way of life based upon respect for rights conferred by history.' Georges P. Vanier.

1. Our national crisis: is Canada going to pieces?

Is Canada going to pieces? — No! Our present day national crisis should not be considered by the insiders or the outsiders as a hair-raising (or even hell-raising) event. As a matter of fact, it is the great family debate. Disagreement does not mean a lack of loyalty or of integrity. A good national democratic society is a debating society. First of all, we Canadians have to agree that we can disagree. Variety of thought is the sign of creativity and of the richness of life, while uniformity (which equals conformity and deformity) of thought is the way to cultural stagnation and ossification.

Hence we should be happy that Quebec exists!
Viva la belle province!

'Today I believe Canadians everywhere appreciate more clearly than ever before the advantages Canada can enjoy from the cultural variety rather than the conformity in our national society.' Prime Minister Lester B. Pearson.

'Over the past few years, one conviction has been growing on me. We need French Canada. Canada would not be Canada without it.' The Most Rev. H. H. Clark, Anglican Primate of Canada.

Sooner or later, Quebec will electrify (not electrocute, though!) the rest of Canada. It will become a radiative source of the Canadian self-transformation process. The great educational awakening from the Atlantic to the Pacific would be hardly thinkable without the conscious or subconscious impact of Quebec's silent revolution. There is no doubt that Ontario is now starting its own educational and cultural revolution. And the decision by Premier John Robarts to make French education available at all levels within the school system of Ontario may prove to be one of the most important decisions yet taken for Canadian Confederation. The opening of a bilingual Faculty of Education at the University of Ottawa would be the

next conclusive step to make this epoch-making decision effective and fruitful.

Quebec and Ontario constitute the very axis of the Canadian national life. Their responsive and responsible educational policy might provide a key for the future of Confederation. The views and voices from Quebec are to be taken into our heads and hearts because they reveal a sincere concern for national unity as well as a deep grasp of the great Canadian dream.

‘It is for us, Canadians, to find a solution to the coexistence of the two nations.’ Premier of Quebec Daniel Johnson.

‘We are attached to this immense country. Our future lies with this country.’ Montreal’s Mayor Jean Drapeau.

‘A l’heure actuelle, le Canada est le seul pays dans les Amériques qui a la faculté de se bâtir pacifiquement un état modèle et une nation conforme aux principes spirituels, moraux, culturels, sociaux et économiques contenus dans la charte des nations et dans la Déclaration universelle, des droits de l’homme.’ André Rossinger.

The idea of the Canadian national unity was pre-eminently expressed by His Excellency The Rt Hon. Georges P. Vanier, Governor of Canada, 1959-1967:

‘This first century has seen Canada emerge from a group of provinces into an independent and respected world power. . . . Let us open the windows and the doors of the provinces. Let us look over the walls and see what is on the other side. Let us know one another . . . I want to be known abroad and at home as a Canadian, not only as a citizen of one of the provinces.’

2. Canada defined and re-defined.

If Canada would not exist, it should be invented. It is unique in its identity, integration and integrity, in its pattern, process and purpose: **Canadian Confederation in 1967 is a miniature, is a microcosmos of the world-wide confederation of countries and continents in 2067.** And yet it is an unsung country. A self-expression power of world writers and of literary geniuses — Homer, Vergil, Dante, Shakespeare, Goethe, Victor Hugo,

Dostoevski, Pasternak — would be necessary to describe this marvellous land in its infinite variety, scintillating beauty, overwhelming immensity and majesty.

One of the most penetrative and clear-cut definitions of Canada was given by Professor W. L. Morton:

‘Canada, that is, has preserved and confirmed the essentials of the greatest of civilizations in the grimest of environments’ (W. L. Morton, *The Canadian Identity*. Toronto: The University of Toronto Press, 1964, p. 114.)

As such, Canada could and should be defined as the first **transcontinental country**, as the first **international nation**. It is a rainbow land uniting the Americas (Latin and Anglo-Saxon) and the Europes (Western, Central and Eastern), uniting East and West, North and South. That is why Roy A. Matthews, Director of Research (Canada) for the Association’s ‘Canadian-America Committee’ and Associate Director of Research for its ‘Atlantic Economic Studies Program’ makes the following proposal:

‘Thus I believe we have to broaden and “modernize” the concept of bilingualism and biculturalism, and of the political system that reflects our national diversity, by making Canada into an international state in which English and French would be the principal elements in a many-faceted structure embodying something of 11 languages and cultures’ (Roy A. Matthews, ‘The International Nation’, *Queen’s Quarterly: A Canadian Review*, Autumn 1965, p. 513.)

The rainbow could be used as a religious, racial, cultural, pedagogical symbol of Canada, the first international nation:

‘I propose the adoption of the rainbow as our emblem. By the endless variety of its tints, the rainbow will give an excellent idea of the diversity of races, religion, sentiments and interests of the different parts of Confederation. By its slender and elongated form the rainbow would afford a perfect representation of the geographical configuration of the Confederation. By its lack of consistence — an image without substance — the rainbow would represent aptly the solidity of our Confederation. An emblem we must have, for every great empire

has one; let us adopt the rainbow' (Frank H. Underhill, **In Search of Canadian Liberalism**. Toronto: The Macmillan Co. of Canada, 1961, p. 11. Cf. A. Paplauskas Ramanus, 'L'énigme canadienne', **L'Ecole canadienne**, Montréal, octobre 1949).

The formula of Americanism is: **E pluribus unum** (Out of many one). Canadianism is a step farther towards the ideal of 11-unity of men, nations and mankind. It could be expressed by the following formula: **Ex omnibus unum** (Out of all one; cf. John 17, 21). In this sense, Canada 1967 prefigures the world in 2067.

3. The Centennial: a turning point in Canadian education and art. Education is the science of the possible. It is the science and art of human self-actualization. As such, education became the tidal force of the century; it became the main vehicle of the coming world transformation.

Two salient educational and cultural achievements mark our Centennial: the World Exposition in Montreal and the World Theological Congress in

Toronto. They constitute a many-splendoured Canadian contribution to Man and His World. They have a deep historical significance for Canadian education, and, eventually, for international education. Under the impact of these two world-wide events, Canada will never be the same.

Two millennia-old golden dreams deeply slumber in the heart of men, nations and mankind: that of the City of Man and that of the City of God; that of prosperity and that of felicity or Beatitudes. Prosperity, aspired by the City of Man, is body-centered; felicity, aspired by the City of God, is soul-centered. Like body and soul, the City of Man and the City of God are inseparable because they meet in the human nature. Taken together, they constitute **two main segments of human self-actualization or self-fulfilment**. The ancient world-wide City of Man, organized by the Romans, was decaying, disintegrating, crumbling, collapsing. Fortunately, it was saved by the City of God, which means **the universal brotherhood of men through universal fatherhood of God**. It is a good historical lesson. **Federalism** (which can be considered as a secular pattern of ecumenism) without **ecumenism**

UNIVERSITY OF BRISTOL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
and

The Central Training Council in Child Care

**ADVANCED COURSE IN RESIDENTIAL WORK WITH CHILDREN
AND YOUNG PEOPLE**

This is a senior one-year training course for experienced staff from all types of residential units for children and young people, leading to recognised qualifications for posts of responsibility in children's homes, approved schools, boarding schools and homes for maladjusted children or children with other handicaps, hostels, reception and remand centres and certain penal institutions. It is particularly relevant for those wishing to prepare themselves for posts involving leadership responsibilities and staff and residential unit supervision.

Applications are invited for the course starting in mid-September 1968. Candidates must have had at least three years' residential experience with children or young people, and should be between the ages of 25 and 45. A recognised previous qualification in the education or care of children is normally required but may be waived in exceptional cases. Grants are generally available from the Central Training Council though many authorities are prepared to second staff on pay.

Details and application forms are obtainable from the Secretary, Central Training Council in Child Care, Horseferry House, Dean Ryle St., London. S.W.1. Applications by 28th February 1968.

cannot sustain. The Human body — physical or social — needs an immortal soul, a creative, all-inspiring, all-transforming, all-transfiguring mind.

Expo 67, in Montreal, is Canada's pre-eminent contribution to a new vision of the City of Man. The International Theological Congress in Toronto is Canada's pre-eminent contribution to a new vision of the City of God. Hence the centennial year 1967 signifies a landmark and, at the same time, a turning-point in the history of Canadian education. (Happy birthday, buoyant and flamboyant Canada!)

4. Canada's prospective educational frontiers.

Under the impact of the unprecedented and most successful Centennial, Canada begins its move towards new educational frontiers. Actually, our Confederation is shifting from breaches to bridges, from duality to dialogues, from two solitudes to national solidarity, from divergences to convergences, from discord to concord. Educationally speaking, Canada is moving from self-criticism to self-knowledge, from self-knowledge to self-confidence, from self-confidence to self-transcendence, from self-transcendence to self actualization or self-fulfilment. Canada is moving from hippiness to happiness.

Professor R. W. B. Jackson warns:

'Certainly, if we continue for the next forty years to blunder and fumble as we have for the past fifty years, we can be confident that we won't have to worry about the future; it will be planned for us by members of other races' (R. W. B. Jackson, 'Education Today for 2000 AD' in: **Education: a collection of essays on Canadian education.** Vol. 5. 1962-1964. Toronto: W. J. Gage, 1965, p. 1.)

This statement is a very good anchorage point for a Canadian, North American, hemispheric and occidental pedagogical reflection.

Professor Wilder Penfield writes:

'We want Canada to lead the world in the organization and efficiency of national education. We believe she could lead the world intellectually, with wide planning' (Cf. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, **Dialogue entre Rome et Moscou.** Preface du Cardinal Koenig. Ottawa: Editions de l'Université d'Ottawa, 1966, p. 199).

The Slow Reader:

A Problem in Two Parts

R. C. ABLEWHITE Dip.E.S.N. (London), M.Ed. (Leicester), *Principal Lecturer in Education, City of Leicester College of Education*

A practical study of the two major aspects of reading failure - the difficulty in learning to read initially and the still worse problem of illiteracy at the secondary stage. R. C. Ablewhite has worked on these problems for many years and treats them in a positive and hopeful manner that will be of the greatest possible help to all those concerned with backward children, particularly parents and teachers.

'This is an excellent book that should be in the hands of all teachers who meet the problem of backwardness in reading. Moreover it is written in good style and is a pleasure to read'—*Times Educational Supplement* 15s Net.

Problems of Adolescent Girls

JAMES HEMMING

A new edition of this work based on a survey of letters written by adolescent girls to a magazine, the book sets out ideas for effective guidance of girls at home and at school to ensure a balanced and mature adulthood. *H.E.B. paperback* 16s net.

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Educational Books,

48, CHARLES STREET, LONDON W.1.

And according to Douglas Fisher, the cast of our policy must be to the future. What is this future achievement, this ideal to be? It must be **to create the best-educated and most highly-trained people in the world, beyond anything tried or in train anywhere else** (Cf. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, *Op. c.*, p. 199).

Of course, such a pre-eminent transcontinental rôle in education, would, in reality mean the very fulfilment of the great Canadian dream. But is it possible? Is it attainable? And how? To succeed educationally, Canada could and should adopt a **four-dimensional** pattern, process and purpose of education: our prospective education is to be **universe-centered, man-centered, society-centered and God-centered**. Such a unified value-system would be exhaustive and at the same time not exhausting. It would be liberating because it would release all the creative energies and potentialities of our country (Cf. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, *Modern Philosophies of Education-Filosofias modernas de educacion*. In English and Spanish. Habana-Cuba. The Executive Committee of the Fifth Inter-American Congress of Education, 1954).

The European education is predominantly man-centered, culture-centered. The African education is predominantly universe-centered, cosmos-centered, nature-centered. The American education is predominantly society-centered. The Oriental education is predominantly God-centered, religion-centered.

The four ways of education and life are not contradictory, but contrary, correlative, complementary. Taken together, they lead towards a well-integrated living, towards a total self-actualization of men, nations and mankind. Knowledge without wisdom, sex without love, technology without culture, culture without religion, religion without faith in man and mankind, humanism without humanitarianism, the secular City without the sacred City, integration without integrity, etc., might lead us to a failure or even a catastrophe.

By adopting a four-dimensional pattern, process and purpose of education, Canada the first transcontinental nation, would be the first to have a transcontinental pedagogical view and voice among the nations of the globe. It is by the means of

education, based on an integrated, well-balanced, complete value-system, that Canada can actualize its highest ideas, ideals and aspirations and be enabled to begin to lead the world intellectually.

5. Universities: the guiding lights and lightnings for the Canadian Self-Renewal.

The North American universities are becoming more and more conscious of their province-wide, nation-wide, and mankind-wide educational mission (Cf. E. W. Weidner, *The World Role of Universities*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1962).

To foster the spirit of diversity in unity and to restore the spirit of unity in diversity is one of the key tasks to academic research and teaching. (Cf. A. Paplauskas Ramunas, 'Canadian Universities at the Dawn of a New Age', *The Fulcrum*, November, 23, 1966.)

It is only by preparing a new generation of teachers — of **creativity-minded** and **creative** teachers — that our universities can turn into the very spearheads of the Canadian self-transformation and self-renewal process. We assist at the dawn of the era of the teacher.

Canada needs a national or a B-B university:

'It should be obvious that if Canada is ever to have a university that will rival the best in the world . . . there must be a radically new departure: the foundation of a National University . . . But there can be no serious doubt that a national university should be in the national capital . . . Ottawa could well do with the stimulus to its intellectual life which a university would provide, and would offer the university a bilingual environment' (Hans Eichner, 'Education: A National University', *Saturday Night*, June 1966, p. 48.)

The existence of a B-B university in Ottawa is the very precondition of the Canadian educational boom and bloom both on national and international scales. Canada, *sapere aude*!

Mental Health in Action

by **Pauline Watson**

Mental health has been defined in a variety of ways; even 'the experts' find difficulty at times in defining it clearly and in a way that is acceptable to others. Some may question whether the ability to stay out of gaol is rightly the privilege of the mentally healthy person (as has been put forward by one writer); others wonder whether the stress is (in this definition) on the word 'ability', in which case further avenues of discussion and dissension are immediately opened up. Like so many other experiences in life, however, it does not always matter whether a concept has been clearly defined beforehand. One recognizes it for what it is when one is actually involved in the situation. A child may not have been told what 'hot' really means; even if he has, it may still be a very vague kind of concept to him. But let him place his hand on a hot stove and he recognizes immediately and understands only too clearly what it means to be burnt. This fact struck me very forcibly after a few days at the recent Summer School run by the New Education Fellowship. One could look around and say 'Here is mental health in action'. It really became a recognizable concept. Having made such a statement, one can then work backwards, so to speak, and try to define some of the factors which helped to bring about this situation.

Perhaps activity is one of the first thoughts which spring to mind. If the old adage about the Devil finding work for idle hands be true, then the NEF may assume some credit, I think, for being at the opposite end of the scale in this connection. The whole school was really 'alive' with activity in some part of which every single person was involved, in varying degrees of time, perhaps, but with an almost universal enthusiasm and sense of purpose. The formal courses offered concerned art, sculpture, photography, drama, music, and a discussion course in human relationships, and were held each morning from 9.30-12.30. In actual fact, some members of the groups went on working during the afternoons and even at night. For those who did not, however, there was no lack of activity in other directions; films, slides, recordings and talks were arranged, as

well as visits to such places as the new Newcastle University, a winery, and local 'historic' buildings. Participation in all these activities was, of course, quite voluntary, but I think that most of us felt that here were opportunities just too good to miss. One was swept along on a tide of stimulation and enthusiasm that was hard to resist. I'm sure we were all convinced that never before had we experienced or achieved so much in such a short time. It made one feel that the rest of the year must have been frittered away quite unnecessarily! On reflection, of course, one realizes that the pace and degree of such activity could not be maintained for most of us over very long periods — if for no other reason than the mundane responsibilities of life in which we are inevitably involved. But it is a very exciting experience, I think, to engage in such full and stimulating living for a relatively short period like this. One does not, unexpectedly perhaps, become exhausted with this kind of living. On the contrary, it is rather like having a shot in the arm, which provides a real boost to one's mental and physical outlook. I noticed that whereas some of us arrived at the school feeling and looking rather tired out after the usual end-of-year work loads and festivities, those same people left the school with quite a new lease of life — and, I am sure, a healthier frame of mind. To use a Rogerian phrase, slightly out of context, we all felt 'damn good'.

Activity alone, of course, is not enough. What was it that made the activity meaningful, apart from the specific skills or knowledge we acquired? It is difficult here to isolate any one factor, but I feel that one outstanding aspect of this school was the spirit of acceptance that became so quickly and firmly established. Again, it is not easy to pin-point how this happened, although it is obvious that the directors of the school created a climate where such acceptance might flourish. With this kind of beginning it only seems to need a few people prepared to 'give' of themselves and 'accept' fully of others in return to create a kind of healthy rash that spreads through the community with the same inevitable intensity as a contagious disease. It was as though we had all caught, from a few key carriers, a kind of mental health 'wog', which would run its happy course as long as we remained together and continued the treatment. If this analogy or this concept sounds exaggerated, I can only suggest you try out the experience for yourself — and you may be pleasantly surprised. After all, you can only fully

sympathize with and understand the measles sufferer if you've already been through it, or appreciate the joys of love or flying, or deep sea diving, or whatever ecstasy people may enthuse about, if you have felt those same joys yourself. Otherwise you may well underrate both the experience and its effects.

If there is any truth in this concept of 'contagious acceptance', as I believe there is, then it has very valuable lessons for its application in much wider communities. We are all aware of particular schools or factories, commercial enterprises or homes, where a real spirit of acceptance prevails. It is felt, it is applied, it 'lives' and the benefit to those partaking in it is enormous. It would seem, therefore, that any opportunity of which we can avail ourselves, any practice we can obtain in this basic role of getting along with other people and encouraging them to do the same is well worth the effort it may take to achieve.

As a general rule it is not so difficult to get along with people of your own age, or social background, or religious and ethical beliefs — particularly if you are all the same colour and speak the same language, though it is true that even then we strike quite severe problems from time to time. But put together 130 people ranging from 16 to 80 years, with some variety of social background and an even wider disparity of ethical beliefs and cultural heritage, with colours black, brown and white, and some difficulties in communication, and you are faced with a challenge that does not come to many of us in this country. That is why I do not use lightly the concept of acceptance. Nor do I wish to imply that, because there is acceptance, there is necessarily agreement. The discussions which went on at all times of the day and night on a wide variety of subjects brought forth many ideas and covered many areas where there were varying divergences of opinion. What was so striking was the fact that such people could meet together so easily, so acceptingly, and with so little inhibition. For many of the African students in particular this was an experience which they were having for the first time, and they found it both rewarding and enriching. Needless to say, the whole school was greatly enhanced by the variety of races and cultures within it. For many others also it was a 'first time' experience of this kind, and the result was mutually enriching and exciting. As one participant said later, 'I lived in Africa for seven years, but I had to come to this school to get to know an African'

It may be appropriate to mention here that many of the people attending the school were, for a variety of reasons, highly motivated towards adopting an accepting attitude and a general feeling of enjoyment — primarily because they had been before or had heard good reports from others. I think, however, that there were quite a few, like myself, to whom the prospective experience was an unknown quantity and one which we anticipated with rather mixed feelings. There were the individualists who do not normally care for communal living, and who, inevitably, if unreasonably, associate this kind of activity with memories of school days or Sunday School picnics: or even worse, with the kind of adult group and club organizations where the immature person often finds delight — and is, in fact, encouraged in behaving in an infantile fashion. Anyone with these initial qualms soon had his mind put at rest. If a school of this kind is conducted in an adult fashion and consists of people wishing to behave in a mature way, then the group experience and the communal living becomes growth-promoting and not regressive.

Several other factors added to the 'climate creating' atmosphere which is necessary for certain conditions to arise and to prosper. The fact that it was a residential school meant that we were all living closely together over the ten-day period, and therefore the formalities of getting to know someone — which often extend over weeks or even months in normal conditions — were cut to about two days. When we passed an African we returned his greeting each time, though it be twenty times in the day, because that is his custom — and on some of the occasions, anyway, we stopped to exchange a few words. With a Filipino, we might ask 'Where have you been?', or 'Where are you going?', both questions to open up a world of interest. With a Sinhalese we might bow, our hands folded under the chin in traditional welcome or thanks. It all helped to cut down on the formalities, break down the barriers, and open the doors to understanding. Meals were held at large tables, holding about 14 people, with no fixed places, so that one had the opportunity of eating with at least some different people at each meal. Morning and afternoon tea and supper were held on an open verandh with plenty of room for moving about. This meant that, quite apart from other social encounters such as dancing, the whole school was able to mix freely together on the six regular eating occasions each

day. The trips in cars or buses to places of interest outside the school also provided relaxed and pleasant opportunities for getting to know and understand one another as fellow human beings. I have spoken of the school in general terms, partly because this overall functioning was a significant and basic aspect of the whole concept of conducting such a venture, and partly because it is not possible to write in detail here of the individual groups. It was apparent, however, that apart from the specific knowledge emanating from these groups, a very similar and, in some cases, more intensified process of acceptance and understanding was taking place.*

One leaves an occasion such as this, reeling slightly under its impact, saturated with the experience, stimulated by ideas and feelings (some of which one had not met before), one's knowledge enlarged, one's capacities extended, filled with hopes for future encounters and re-inforced, as it were, to meet the challenges ahead. After the initial enthusiasm has subsided and one has slipped back to the routine of everyday living, we can fairly ask ourselves — what remains of permanent value? Factual knowledge and skills acquired — but these are, perhaps, of relative importance; tolerance, acceptance, understanding — these three aspects have been felt and learnt, given and received, and we do not readily unlearn or forget satisfying modes of behaviour or rewarding experiences. The experience gained in this kind of general human relationships course — although it will naturally vary in degree and range with individual persons — is one which must be of lasting effect in our ability and our readiness to understand, accept and generally 'relate' to other people in ways that are satisfying and helpful.

Our outlook has become extended, our horizons shifted beyond our back fence, our vision begins to take in the rest of the world because, for a short time, we have been personally involved with people in that world. In the kind of universe in which we live today, the ability to communicate, to relate, to understand, to accept, to tolerate, would seem to be one of the prime factors in helping to create and maintain mentally healthy communities — a more desirable ability to develop perhaps, though equally difficult at times, than that of keeping out of gaol!

*For a detailed description of the Human Relations Group, see *New Horizons*, No. 37 Autumn 1967.

BOOK REVIEWS

Teaching and Television

Ed. by Guthrie Moir.

Pergamon Press, 35s.

There is a story of a well-known prima donna who complained to Sir Thomas Beecham in his younger days that he was taking the music far too fast and that if he insisted on going at that pace she would not be able to keep up. 'In that case, madam, he is reported to have replied, 'I regret that you will be left behind'.

Without implying any temperamental affinity between teachers and prima donnas, it is surely true that those teachers who refuse to hear the rhythms of the new media of communication (of which television is the most universal and accessible) will indeed fall behind in their teaching capacity. They will fall behind not least in understanding their students and the means by which they may fruitfully learn. What is more serious, their pupils or their students will be so much the poorer in their own learning experience through their teachers' failure to make use of the new media.

Such use **need** not mean only direct use in the classroom. It does seem that, while it is no longer a mark of cultural respectability to refuse to have a television set in the house, there are still many teachers who regard it as important to refuse to have a set in the classroom. And this is quite separate from the financial problems of providing enough sets in schools. But more and more teachers every year are realising that their pupils and students are learning from television anyway and they wish to bring it directly into the learning situation — by reference, by comparison, or by the direct use of educational programmes.

This book is concerned with educational television: at all levels of education. It consists of twelve essays by twelve expert practitioners in different aspects of this new technology. One of its main virtues is that each essay shows with great clarity how the use of television can make the teacher's work more effective in several and various ways. For example, Charles Warren recalls the classic principles of the early days of school television, which still apply, referring to 'taking the children outside the four walls of the classroom' and 'stimulating practical activity' and providing a 'synthesis of specialised resources of research, illustrating and dramatised presentation, Kenneth Fawdry goes further and points to an increasingly recognised value of television in that 'where new approaches to subject teaching and new syllabus content are in question, . . . a national service (of television) can serve to propagate these over the country at large' — and he illustrates this with the example of 'new' mathematics.

Enid Love describes how 'teachers soon found that television enabled them to see their pupils in a fresh light'; and William Beaton believes that local educational television can 'complement as never before the basic day-to-day work of schools and colleges through direct-teaching programmes deliberately geared in content and pacing to the syllabus.'

A similar recognition is developing among university teachers. Derek Holroyde speaks of the encouraging experience of watching academic staff, 'once they have spent a little time familiarising themselves with the workings of television hardware, beginning to think of

new ways of presenting their subjects'. In adult education, the television course is often the only direct 'teacher' for those who follow it, for they are following it at home and not in class; but Brian Groombridge ends by stressing how important it is for 'educationists and broadcasters to work on several problems together'; and his essay closes with a series of questions for such a dialogue.

These are only a few examples; but they illustrate that this is a book written by educationists for educationists: and written with a keen knowledge of the practical problems involved. There are no marauding journalists among this delegation of practising experts. Each is closely involved in and committed to the work he or she is describing; and this gives real strength to the book.

Another considerable virtue is its comprehensive view of the subject. It considers all levels of education, from primary schools to universities and adult education. It looks both at the production side and at the learning situation. It considers broadcast television and closed-circuit television (both LEA-based and university-based). It considers the integration of television with other learning media and resources. It includes two very interesting essays on ETV progress in the USA and some developing countries, in comparison with the United Kingdom. And it not only looks back over the past ten years, but takes a critical view of the present and a hopeful but realistic view of the future. Indeed, the essays that consider some of the basic problems to be solved and some ways of tackling them in the future are among the most interesting in the book.

There is plenty here to think about for everyone concerned with new techniques in education. Perhaps the readers who would find least of relevance to the mainstream of their work would be those engaged in technical education and industrial training. But it would be ungracious to elaborate on omissions in what is a remarkably broad-ranging book.

It is well illustrated, well indexed and easy both to read and to refer back to. It has a short, clear preface by the Secretary of State for Education and Science (at the time of publication) and a useful introduction by the editor, Guthrie Moir. It should be an essential reference-book for every teaching staffroom; and it would be a good buy for the library as well.

John Robinson.

YOUNG INDIA

by Marianna Norris
with photographs by Blaise Levai
Wheaton of Exeter — 10s 6d

Refreshing and compact, 'Young India' is strikingly free from bias — of history, propaganda, or of the travelogue. The author has used her opportunity with freedom and discrimination to weld together an aggregation of facts as mammoth-like as the 'Mahabharata' itself.

If her appeal is to the very young, in her approach Marianna Norris is suitably forthright and disarming. Her opening lines would win the heart of any child to see good triumph over evil, to see the paper giant, Ravana, and his evil colleagues erupt and 'lurch into combat'. With relevant snippets of information she

attempts to show not only India's physical size, but also its intellectual dimensions: at once the 'Abode of Snow', yet also the cradle of 'Aesop's Fables' and many a nursery and fairy tale that still fashions the mind of a young child in the West. Neither writer nor photographer make any attempt to simulate enthusiasm by coating sights with the glamour of wonder, or of history.

Although much within every larger city is cosmopolitan and modern, and where the density of population is often more than 700 per square mile, 90% of the overall population are farmers. Hence it's to the villages and their mud huts that she next turns her attention. She stops to describe details of daily rituals, of washing before meals, of bathing and teeth-cleaning. Since the contrast between the rich and the poor has judiciously been avoided, it might have been worthwhile to point out that the cleft between them is not so wide in the matter of daily rituals and food habits; that the problem of two nations is purely one of wealth. Even the most 'progressive' elements in the country are coming around to thinking the way Gandhi did at a time when he earned nothing but the ire of all his associates. Perhaps India would have had a greater chance of self-sufficiency in food-production, and full-employment without inflation, if the village was made the core of development and not the industrialised big cities. Even the USSR with the iron hand of Stalin to mould its destiny, could not transform a backward economy into an industrialised modern state without immense shortages of consumers' goods, and consequent hardships in everyday living; to aim for such a change within the framework of a democratic constitution is nothing short of asking for the moon.

No doubt over-simplification was unavoidable. Yet it is only when seen against its near-cosmic background where 70% of the adult population is still illiterate, with overall literacy a meagre 33%, that the frail cry of 'each one teach one' becomes not only poignant but real. Again it could be pointed out that within the Indian context, the fact that 'Religion tells him (the Hindu child) what to eat and what to wear', is of as much significance today as perhaps the eating of fish on Fridays is to a Catholic child. The much-riled caste system, shown as a stunting off-shoot of the Vedic establishment, is neatly used to introduce a short story of ancient India, leading on to Independence and Asoka's wheel of progress. It would have been interesting at this stage to recall that the caste system was not really the ill-effect of an otherwise excellent religious aspiration, but a necessary system of the division of labour in a basically agricultural setting. Did not the ancient Greeks consider it essential in the cause of efficiency to divide their community into four distinct classes of people? The philosopher-kings stood on the top-most rungs, of the ladder, the slaves on the lowest ones, with the administrative and trading classes in between — almost as neatly arranged as the castes of ancient India.

It was the quietly informative tone of the book that held my nine-year old spellbound. Yet he was quick to point out the inaccuracy of an over-simplified map, where not only are rivers and boundaries inextricably mixed, but coastlines and rivers are made to disappear; where the Himalayas lie outside India, and Delhi is shown to be situated not on the river Jamuna, but within a few hundred miles of it.

A book to be recommended for Junior and Infant school libraries, I feel it would likewise be appreciated

by the younger and lesser able children in secondary schools Blaise Levai's eloquent photographs often need no caption. If the book leaves one with a feeling of incompleteness, of a void, it is due perhaps to the nagging sense that having set down the path that led to the present, one would have wished Marianna Norris to proceed to formulate the ideals, fears and ambitions of the 'Young India' that is growing today. But perhaps the proper place for that is another book.

Lalit Jaggi

Achievement in Mathematics

D. A. Pidgeon (ed.)
NFER; 1967

Everyone agrees that it is very difficult to know what really goes on in schools. One way of finding out is to ask a large sample of teachers and pupils a lot of questions and to process the replies with figures. Then you translate your numerical information back into carefully qualified words, hoping — often in vain — that your tentative suggestions will not be read as certainties. This NFER report, part of an international project for the evaluation of educational achievement in secondary schools, is a fine example of educational research as it is generally understood and practised today. Its findings are expressed in a language with a curious and unique charm (thus: 'it is approximately true that the top 13% of modern school pupils score higher than the bottom 13% of grammar school pupils', or consider one of the verbalised results of a complicated regression analysis: 'pupils who express enthusiasm for school tend to see man as in some degree master of his fate'). It presumably takes its place in the pool of information available to planners and administrators.

The international project was not intended to yield specific recommendations but was concerned with producing evidence that would be useful in making decisions about educational organisation. Mathematics was chosen as a first area of study, principally because there had been much activity in the teaching of this subject in recent years. Each country convened a committee which tried to describe the contents and purposes of mathematical education in that country. These were compared and some sort of common investigation agreed. It was decided to limit the tasks given to pupils to those that could be expected to be dealt with in five to ten minutes. Inevitably the scale of the operation (about 12,000 pupils in more than 400 secondary schools were tested in England) meant that the mathematical tests were in the form of multiple-choice questions. The report includes the questionnaires given to pupils and teachers but not the actual mathematics tests.

It turns out that the tests were difficult — especially for the thirteen year olds. 'Pupils have less mastery of mathematics than the experts expected them to have', the report drily comments. The reader is not told who the experts were in this case or what questions they concocted. Some interesting remarks at the beginning describe the project's intention to investigate types of process as well as content in mathematics education. Processes are distinguished as knowledge and information, techniques and skills, translation of data into symbols, comprehension and, finally, inventiveness. Multiple choice questions to be answered in five to ten minutes presumably soon put an end to that hope. It is hardly surprising that the mathematics test scores correlate highly with the actual 'O' level achievements of the pupils concerned. The report seems to take this to mean that the tests were satisfactory.

The 'O' level follow-up study nicely illustrates some of

the problems and subtleties of this sort of research. About 25% of the pupils from the sample who sat for the examination of the London board gained a grade 1 whereas the other boards gave less than 5% of their candidates from the sample a grade 1 pass. At first sight this might seem to confirm the widely believed folk-lore that the London board is a safer bet. But there is in fact no significant difference between the separate correlations of each board's results with the scores from the tests. Perhaps the candidates for the London board were brighter; if you are a head of department you may be unwise to switch to the London board because you think its examinations are easier. On the other hand there may always be other factors, as the report sensitively admits when it considers its confirmation of many recent research findings that class size is unrelated to achievement. The fact that most teachers believe it is may be more important.

The many tables of figures yield an enormous amount of information though there is always the nagging doubt that the information may be reflexive — another way of expressing what was put into the original questions. This doubt still holds in the case of the attitude questionnaires. Teachers were asked whether they thought the logical structure of mathematics or the interests and needs of the pupils were of prime importance or to indicate uncertainty about this. For all types of school about half the teachers chose the interests and needs of pupils. So what? It is like the opinion polls: when asked which way they will vote so many per cent of a sample will say such and such. The information is about the way people respond to a question, not necessarily about how they will vote. The teachers were also asked to indicate the extent to which they felt hampered and constrained by syllabus, text-books, set methods or examinations. What, dear reader, is your pet scapegoat?

The answers to the pupils' questionnaires are more interesting though similar reservations hold. Music is a least liked subject in all type of school; Latin is also least liked in direct grant and independent schools. Pupils in modern and comprehensive schools express more enthusiasm for school than pupils in other types of school. (Remember that this is one way of describing the fact that a certain figure is greater than another.) The report rightly expresses some concern at the response of pupils studying mathematics at 'A' level to questions about mathematics. Apparently such pupils, from all types of school, see mathematics as more fixed and absolute than other groups of pupils. On the other hand more girls than boys see the subject as a changing one, especially those from single-sex schools. Perhaps the relative shortage of qualified mathematicians in girls' schools is not such a bad thing after all! The 'A' level mathematicians also attached less importance to the place of mathematics in society than other pupils. There seems to be plenty of scope for decision-making here.

There is nothing very useful to be learned from this report about children and mathematics. A project on this scale is more likely to be interested in general questions of school organisation: selection, streaming, size of class, examinations and so on. The vast amount of material gathered is sifted and analysed to see if it would support various general hypotheses but nothing very startling or conclusive emerges. Inevitably each investigation seems to conclude by outlining the need for further research. The anatomy of the system becomes a self-perpetuating game.

One is impressed by the painstaking care that has gone into the compilation of this report. It is nice to think that decision-makers are seeking evidence before making their decisions. It is fun to see bits of folk-lore confirmed and others unsupported. But it is sad, very sad, to think of all the money and time that has gone into this project. The situation it barely scratches is real enough.

D. G. Tahta.

Understanding Schools

David Ayerst.

Penguin P.252 Price 5s.

David Ayerst's account of schools is fair, straightforward and very readable. As an expansion, an enriched guide to the provisions of the State and private sectors, it should be of real value to student teachers taking up primary bearings on the educational map.

Curriculum and methods are discussed through the three stages and here and there teacher pupil relationships but in the main the text is concerned with organisation and reorganisation. And yet this cool and impartial study could too easily suggest that all is well in the best of all possible worlds, that understanding schools is a matter of being informed about systems rather than studying their assumptions and social effects. Such a reading would be unsubtle.

For we are invited rather to go on safari. Here is a man treading softly and deftly over familiar traps. Sociological data is used almost without comment: of social theory, the philosophy of education and the politics of church and Party there is scarcely a whisper.

But some sharp points are made. The tales of Hadow are flicked away: State education is and has been throughout this century a straight split between grammar and the rest, between middle class aspirants and manual workers. Of course there was and still is a tripartite system as the Hadow Committee well knew, but it was not the one they outlined. Ayerst recognises this throughout and is well aware that his non-teacher audience would not expect him to be too critical.

There are some neat remarks about examinations. The effects of subject equivalence within examinations on the curriculum and of examination equivalence with the system disclose metaphors of education at variance with its more altruistic purposes. G.C.E's and C.S.E's are shown to be currency problems, trading stamps of different colours about which there is and will continue to be a convertability crisis.

A case for smaller comprehensive schools is inched in with great care. Here the data from the Newsom report might well have been used to better effect but the material on Rhodesian schools was new to this reviewer.

There are some unquestioned assumptions. For instance that 'the competitive element... is deeply embedded in the English educational system', or that 'average schools' risk "pauperization of the spirit" as "the image" of this nation state changes.

Other data in the text reminds us that the meritocratic race really only got going after 1944. When the 11+ became the sole criteria for grammar school entrance the internal competition really warmed up.

Finally there are some strange and disquieting phrases. The recognitions that middle class parents whose children have been rated as below average need to 'avoid the disgrace' of sending their children to modern schools, that failures of understanding "often induce" a hostile confrontation of teacher and pupil, that 'a considerable fraction of the boys and girls in a (modern) school find little satisfaction in any aspect of secondary school life,' are all the stronger for coming from his pen.

In brief this is a book to reread: it repays study.

R. L. Richer.

CORRESPONDENCE

Dear Editor,

I have had my copy of 'The New Era' sent on from Lloyds Bank Ltd., 72 Lombard St.

You have obviously not known what has been going on in Scotland. We are not unused to that!

If you had had a report from quite a number of schools in Glasgow and the west of Scotland you would have found them very much in line with your first article. There is much more to be done but the farseeing say emphatically that what is here called the house system with specially appointed housemasters and mistresses is going to make an enormous contribution.

Several of our large comprehensive schools have what **you** would name counsellors who do much more than what the usual house master or mistress has done in the past, and who hold a special appointment from the education authority to carry out the kind of work Mr. Gill's article outlines.

I consider that the most outstanding plan has been worked out successfully by Mr. J. R. B. Christie M.A., Headmaster of Knightswood Comprehensive School, Knightswood, Glasgow. Glasgow Corporation have also recently begun to appoint extra school welfare officers especially to see the pupils as members of a family unit and to form a link between the family and the school. The Senior School Welfare Officer is Miss Auld, 25 Bothwell Street, Glasgow. Another school where the Housemaster System (they call it that) is well worked out is Glenwood Secondary School, Glasgow — Headmaster Mr. James M. Gardman M.A.,

Wonderful counselling is done at our Notre Dame Child Guidance Clinic where everything is very up to date. See the recently opened 'Young People's Centre' page 7.

You may wonder who I am. I have been a member of the New Education Fellowship almost since its inception. At the moment I am a member of the committee of the two education societies in Glasgow with general membership, both societies similar to the N.E.F.,

I am sending the recent report of the Notre Dame Child Guidance Clinic and the syllabus for the current year of the Glasgow Education Society on whose list of officials I appear. Probably the person who could have given you all the information you would want in education affairs in Scotland is the President of Glasgow Education Society, Professor Nisbet (Professor of Education, University of Glasgow).

I shall be interested to read any more information you publish on this subject.

I am, yours sincerely,

Margaret B. Ingram,
10 Boleyn Road,
Glasgow S1.

Next Issue will contain Recent Developments in Primary School Mathematics G. M. Bravery
Team Teaching Charles Hannam
Creativity in Schools by Dr. Margaret Wason
and much else of interest.

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Editorial Notes

A pleasant feature of editing 'The New Era' is the way articles just 'happen'. Reports on experience come in from classrooms, clinics, teachers' centres, colleges of education, university research teams. This reflects a growing realisation that education is teamwork, as Charles Hannam demonstrates that teaching can be.

The February issue shows this unity in diversity. We have John Kirkham questioning the compulsory principle and much else that we take for granted; Betty Willsher takes us on a round trip to United States to compare twelve psychiatric units she studied there with the organisation in which she works in Fife. We see here global concern for similar aspects of education and a weakening of the boundaries between education and social welfare services.

The editorial board have been in search of material on the new mathematics. We had some controversial reviews of mathematical textbooks recently which indicated a burning interest in this subject. We are pleased to print G. M. Bravery's article from East Sussex with its optimistic reflection on 'the readiness of most of our primary teachers to adapt themselves . . . to meet the challenge of their times.'

Next month we are printing observations by J. S. Stockwell 'Before the New Maths Can Begin' showing work with some emotionally disturbed children.

Seonaid Robertson secured the report of the S.E.A. Conference at Chichester which is pure gold from U.S.A. If we offered you a conference report at any time would you ever expect to find in it 'this art of following through the making of something from natural material to personal co-creation.' This report relates to Dr. Margaret Wason's effort 'to educate Children for the Next Century' in **Creativity in Schools**.

We print another address given to a Scottish conference at Pitlochry which is a wholesome reminder that some of us know less about the organisation of education in Scotland than in United States or Tasmania. We are asked to base our eagerness for radical change on comparative information. Even our 'new' ideas can be constantly re-examined!

From Tasmania we print more about pupil counselling. The world in happy ferment.

Another Short Way with Dissenters

John Kirkham Kesteven College of Education

John Kirkham says this article proposes that after a hundred years of compulsory education we should introduce the voluntary principle. 'Teachers are so startled by the idea that they laugh it out. If you like it we should see how New Era readers take it.

I taught in senior schools in Northampton and Cambridge before the war; I held a Sec. Mod. headship in Hatfield Herts for nine years; and I have now been twelve years in teacher training.'

Comprehensive education may fail, as is being suggested both by those who want it to succeed and by those who don't. But if it fails it won't be for want of money or teachers or purpose-built schools, it will be for want of ideas, vision, understanding, imagination — not enough good teachers. I am not going to plead for better teachers instead of more teachers; we want both. I am going to make a suggestion for altering the organisation of education so as to make the best use of the teachers we have.

Comprehensive schools may fail; it depends what your criteria of success are. Universities have failed, if your demand of them is that they take education seriously, and show the way to a new kind of society. The grammar schools, by their own examinations, and choosing their own pupils, have failed to get more than half of them to a reasonable O level, or more than one in thirty to a university, their ultimate criterion of success. Technical schools get less than one in ten of their starters through to their national certificate or other goals. The secondary modern follow the utterly inappropriate academic standards set by the grammar schools and fail even more dismally, dismissing half their pupils as (in public) unexaminable and (in private) ineducable. These bottlenecks and failures are an inevitable part of a pyramidal system, where the higher you go the fewer. They will not serve an equalitarian system. Prisons are reckoned successful if a third of their output don't get caught again. In all these institutions we set ourselves wrong standards, fail to reach

them, and call our failure success. Yet in all there are men doing good work; but mainly in despite of the system. Why don't we design the system to encourage the best teachers instead of forcing them to work against the grain? Teachers and schools can't be judged on examination successes. Good teachers, good schools are those which keep alive the spirit which will grow and flower and fruit. What sort of system can we design which will encourage all teachers to do this as far as they are able?

I think the change to comprehensive, by abolishing selection, can do much to help the junior school. Already there is more to admire in junior than in secondary, and those who administer the schools and those who train the teachers should make sure that good primary methods spread upwards into secondary; against the manifest danger of secondary characteristics casting their shadow into the junior school — specialisation, passivity-methods, textbooks, relying on examinations as an incentive, lack of warm individual contacts and human relations.

What I want to suggest is that we should encourage the best in teaching by making secondary education voluntary. If this is too startling to think about calmly let us take it that the middle school is established for the nines to thirteens (and this would be a good move if the middle schools extend the best in junior methods) and then after thirteen make school attendance voluntary until the statutory age for entering employment, as it is already voluntary beyond that age.

At present the pressure to attend school is applied by society, on the pupil, through the teacher; and the teacher is given the impossible task of educating under compulsion. Impossible because you can condition or indoctrinate or brain-wash or even teach techniques under compulsion, but you cannot educate; and in particular you cannot educate morally. And it is in moral education that we are failing the younger generation. Their revolt against their education is basically moral and anti-intellectual.

If secondary education were voluntary, pressures would still urge children to get educated

— pressures by parents, employers, police, by society as a whole. Pressure of any kind is bad for education; it perverts it from its proper moral aims and into intellectual and material aims which suffer less under pressures; and in the end education becomes mere conditioning. But if the pressure came from outside the school, teachers would be freed from the impossible task of reconciling the moral and the compulsory. Moral and compulsory are irreconcilable, oil and water, oxymoronic, contradictory, incompatible. The will to do right is the ability to love, and love does not burgeon under compulsion.

We are warned that there will be less unskilled jobs and a demand for higher technical accomplishment. This will be part of the pressure on the young to attend school. But the more important demand of the future, surely, will be for the young to have the theoretical grasp which will make changes, even revolutions in technique possible and acceptable, and for them to have the integrity and the courage to welcome these changes instead of sheltering in ignorance and restrictive practices. The results of compulsory attendance are resentment and a resistance to social solidarity, both often hidden under a superficial docility. The result we want is the readiness to make fundamental changes in ideas and practices.

Which quality would you choose in your plumber or dentist, moral integrity or professional skill? I don't care how moral he is, you say, if he can't use his tools he is no use to me. But the man with integrity is bound to be able to use his tools. Because of his integrity he won't accept payment for a skill he hasn't got; he won't tackle a job he can't do, and he won't cover it up and pretend it is right underneath. If he doesn't know he will ask, and if he has botched it he will say so. Integrity subsumes professional skill; but professional skill does not necessarily involve integrity. Choose integrity and you get professional skill as a bonus.

I do not think that making secondary schooling voluntary would make much difference to the numbers of children in school. At present

nearly half the sixteen-year-olds are in school voluntarily — voluntarily in the sense that they are 'staying on' in comprehensive or secondary modern schools, or they are in grammar schools where the choice is made voluntarily at 11, and the sanctions against early leaving are not strong enough to shake the voluntary principle. Even more would stay on if schools were less like prisons. Of children between thirteen and fifteen about 90% are in school at any given time. Of the ten per cent missing perhaps half are genuinely ill (a few of them with school phobia), and the rest are shamming, playing hookey, working illegally either for pay or to free mother to go out and get paid, or they are moving too smartly for the attendance man to catch up with them. If making attendance voluntary doubled this ten per cent (and I don't think it would do that) the probation and welfare services might be even further stretched, but the effect would be something less than disastrous. Attendance down to 80% is not unknown in race week and other stirring times. But if we were prepared to accept this lower attendance we should enormously increase the numbers in school **being educated**. Because (and make no mistake about this) sitting in school waiting for the bell to ring is not being educated. Nor is playing up teacher, or day-dreaming, or doing mechanical examples mechanically, or falling in with any other of the dodges teachers think up to dilute the exhausting business of educating the unwilling and inactive.

It would be an enormous liberation for teachers, especially in secondary modern schools, to be able to say "Don't come wasting my time until you want to learn", to be able to set private study and not have to supervise it, to leave pupils to check their own work. Our pleasure in the job, our effectiveness, even the numbers we could happily teach would be increased, and a lot of real education would go on.

Most of our problems of sanctions would be solved. The child would be there to learn or he would not be there at all. Punishment would cease to pre-occupy us and our energy could be put to creative use. We might have to close down on hot summer afternoons in favour of the swimming bath, and we might have to open up in

the evenings, as Newsom suggests; teaching would be a more attractive occupation if the hours were variable in this way. The isolation of the teacher from the rest of society would be lessened because society would be involved in the motivation and parents in the homework. Good schools, the ones children liked because their work was child-centred would be popular and crowded, and there would be pressure on poorly attended schools to raise their standards.

I can see only one serious danger. We rely partly on children's resistance to learning as a kind of negative feedback to keep the system on the move, to make education dynamic, to stop teachers getting into a rut. Teaching might become so pleasant and easy and lacking in challenge that we should have to find an irritant, like the weeds that cows need in sown grass, to keep us healthy. But I think lively children pursuing active learning would do this for us.

What better time for this change of direction in popular education than the centenary of the 1870 Act? Universal literacy has failed in a hundred years to advance the millenium we expected of it. We failed because we separated out the intellect and educated it alone at the expense of the will and the sensibility and the other transcendentals. We shall not be given another hundred years to reverse that mistake.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE PLACE OF TEACHER AND SCHOOL IN TWELVE PSYCHIATRIC UNITS FOR CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS IN NORTH AMERICA

Betty Willsher, Teacher, Children's Inpatient Unit,
J. D. Haldane, Consultant Psychiatrist,
Department of Child & Family Psychiatry,
Playfield House, Cupar, Fife.

INTRODUCTION

This report and discussion is based on a visit by one of us (B.W.) to units in North America during the summer vacation of 1967. Our interest on this occasion was primarily the place of teacher and school in the life and work of these units. Inevitably therefore our picture of these units is partial and incomplete, because we were concerned with this one aspect and because

no short visit or completed questionnaire can adequately describe the life of such institutions. We hope however that this communication will adequately portray some aspects of the work of these units.

We intend in another paper to describe in more detail the work of teacher and school in this unit, but here, will compare and contrast our own practice with that observed on the visits to one residential school and eleven psychiatric units for children and for adolescents.

ADMISSIONS POLICY

To our own unit, we admit 25-30 children per year though never have more than twelve at a time. They include children suffering from personality and character disorders, neuroses, psychoses, psychosomatic illnesses, organic disorders of the central nervous system, delinquent or deprived children and those with specific learning problems. Some children are also physically handicapped. Occasionally, a mentally defective child is admitted.

Of the units visited, only one, a major research centre, admitted children from all these categories. Two excluded the mentally subnormal; five the subnormal and the physically handicapped; four, these categories, plus psychotic children.

The number of places available ranged from 20 or less (4 units); between 40 and 50 (3 units); between 70 and 80 (2 units), to units with over 100 places — one admitting 450 patients per year — and one with 280 places.

We have never admitted a child less than three years old and the upper age limit for admission is preferably not more than 11 years 6 months (because in the children's unit, we hesitate to retain a child beyond the age of 12 years). Of the units visited, some had a lower age limit for admission of less than three years, in others the lower limit was ten years. Half of the units limited the age range of patients to 5-12 years; three to the age range 5-16 years; and one each, the age groups infancy — 16 years, 8-12 years and 10-15 years.

Though accurate figures are difficult to obtain, it

is our impression that in the U.K. few psychiatric units for children or adolescents and few primary or secondary schools for the maladjusted, are so large as many of the units visited; but that in terms of the age range and categories of children admitted, there is a similarly wide range of policy.

ORGANISATION & STAFF

While one of the units was a residential school, the other eleven were autonomous psychiatric units or part of larger psychiatric institutions. All units had psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers on the staff (some, on a part-time, visiting, basis); four had, in addition, child care staff; another two had, in addition to these categories, nursing staff and psychotherapists; five had together with these six groups, occupational-speech and physio-therapist and one unit had not only all these categories, but also housemothers. To our knowledge, very few psychiatric units or residential schools for maladjusted children in the U.K. have the same range of staff available as had most of the units visited.

Only four of the units had fewer than five teachers; five had an establishment of between five and twenty and three had more than twenty teachers. Only one unit had vacancies on its teaching staff. Teachers who were paid by the Local Education Authority (except in one case) were in the larger units selected by the principle teacher from names submitted by the Education Authority and in the smaller units by teacher in consultation with the head of the unit. Visiting part-time teachers were rarely used.

Enquiring about the training teaching staff had received, we learned that in the larger units visited in the U.S.A., teachers had a university degree plus a formal teacher's training and some teachers had additional special training or experience with handicapped or maladjusted children. In Ontario, training had been mainly teacher's training, some of the staff having had additional special experience, but in one organisation all teaching staff had a university degree and teacher's training and some had additional special training or experience.

While in many of these units the total staff: total patients ratio was even higher than in our own,

in few of the classrooms was the staff: patient ratio as adequate as in our case, where nurses work with our teacher, as she does with them in some of the children's activities out with the classroom.

FACILITIES & EQUIPMENT AVAILABLE.

There was a wide range of facilities available for the educational programme — from one, two or three rooms in some of the psychiatric units to many schoolrooms in several buildings, with gymnasium and swimming pool; from extensive grounds to a unit with only a small piece of ground, cultivated, and protected by a cage, which the children could not leave without an adult escort because the unit was in the centre of a city.

The equipment for the educational programme was provided, except in one case, by the local Education Authority. Some were lavishly equipped, others had to struggle to obtain what was considered essential. As in our own case, five units had insufficient storage space and in ten units staff admitted to having or to have had, similar anxieties, conflicts and problems in regard to the conservation of equipment and materials as we have experienced. All the schoolrooms were not visited, so observations may be inaccurate, but we were surprised to see so little of the children's work displayed.

The teacher (B.W.) in our own unit at present has no office and thus there is inadequate provision for storage of special items of equipment, supplies, reports, records and no room where a child can be given remedial help on his own. We therefore had some sympathy for colleagues in those units (the majority) in which only principal or assessment teachers had an office.

As in our own case, all units had a library for the children. Though blackboards were available, they were not always used. In 11:12 units there was running water in the classrooms, but whereas in our own unit sink and running water are used to encourage water play or as aids to teaching primary mathematics, in these units the main use seemed to be for doing experiments in chemistry. Though the majority (9:12) had piano, tape recorder, film projector, fewer (8:12) used puppets and sand trays, items of equipment which, considering both education and therapy, we

should not like to be without. While clay, painting and modelling materials were adequately provided in all units, few (except where there were pre-school children) used musical instruments, a model house, a shop or store. This was surprising, as was the fact that only 5:12 had a stage and there was so little emphasis on drama.

We have not found radio programmes a useful teaching aid: few of our patients have the concentration necessary to maintain attention. But we greatly value educational programmes on television and our good fortune in having such a wide range of good programmes available was emphasised by the lack of similar facilities available in the units visited. Two units had access to closed circuit educational programmes and in only one unit was television regularly used for educational purposes.

THE SCHOOL PROGRAMME: GENERAL.

At two units, each child's daily educational programme was 1-1½ hours of individual remedial teaching per day: in one of these units, where there was a highly organised occupational therapy programme, the pattern would have been different had there been more teaching staff, but in the other, this limited programme was considered sufficient. In the remaining ten units, while pre-school or autistic children might not be expected to attend all day (except where there were nursery-school provisions), these were exceptions to the general expectation that all children attend for the full school day. This was in marked contrast to our own policy in which each child's daily school and non-school activities are, as far as possible, part of an integrated programme, agreed between teacher and non-teaching staff.

There seemed to be much more emphasis on formal educational work than in our own unit. In only three units was more than 50% of time given to practical work as compared with formal instruction and in 6:12 units the proportion was less than 20%. In two units the emphasis was such that older children were given 1-2 hours 'homework' per day! Out of school expeditions were arranged in all but two units, but frequency was no more than monthly, except in some cases during the period of summer school when there was an active

programme of outdoor activities.

The emphasis on formal schooling seemed also to be implied by the fact that in only three units was the psychiatrist regarded as having a share in the responsibility for the school programme and in only four, a share in planning the educational programme for each child. In our own case, these are matters for frequent and regular discussion. In most units, psychiatric staff had some say in deciding which children should attend school and when.

These observations about the general pattern of the school programme were in some conflict with the aims of the programme as stated by staff. In the unit which had a highly organised occupational therapy programme, the stated aim was to offer individual remedial teaching only. In three others the aim was to provide an environment resembling normal school, together with an opportunity to provide individual remedial teaching. In a further three units the aims were defined as the creation of opportunities for individual remedial teaching plus group therapy. And in the remaining five, aims were defined as the creation of opportunities for individual remedial teaching plus both group and individual therapy. Regrettably, there was insufficient opportunity to debate what we see as an inconsistency between the programmes as observed and the stated aims or what staff meant by 'therapy', whether individual or group.

That 'therapy' as considered by teaching staff, did not in their view include involvement of non-teachers (at least in the classroom setting) is suggested by the fact that in only one of the eight units with nursing staff, were nurses allowed in the classroom, though at one unit, staff were considering adopting this pattern. And while in seven of the twelve units students gained experience in the schoolroom setting, in only one unit were these students nurses in training (in the majority the students were teachers in training). When the idea of nursing staff working in the schoolroom was put forward to staff, there was quite overt resistance by doctors and nurses as well as by teachers. In our own unit, all student nurses spend some time in the schoolroom and we attempt to provide an educational, nursing-care and therapeutic

programme which is defined by joint discussion and in which roles can be overlapping and interchangeable.

TEACHING METHODS & PROGRAMME CONTENT

In the majority of units, children were taught in groups of 1-6; in four, in groups of more than 6; in two, in groups of 2-3 and in only one unit, singly. In 9:12 units the groups did not overlap for different activities except for film shows and swimming, though children could change groups in the other three units. In six units, the composition of the groups was decided by chronological age and level of performance; in three, by these factors plus clinical condition; in two, by these three factors plus plans for treatment; and in one by all these factors plus children's own choice. In a small unit like our own, with the potential for greater flexibility of programme, roles and aims, we have not been faced with the need to work out and maintain firmly defined criteria for teaching in groups.

Contrary to our own practice, we found that in only three of the units did children have stories read to them each day. We find this a useful medium for discussion, interchange of ideas, expression of phantasy, acting out, improvised drama. We are opposed to group reading on the grounds that it so readily becomes competitive and leaves too many children uninvolved at any one time: we found opinions sharply divided on the merits of this system. In 9:12 units daily stories were read only to the younger children and it was our impression that many teachers did not feel at ease in this activity. Our own practice is to tend to avoid using textbooks which children have already used in their day school: the policy was similar in all but one of the units visited.

Convinced of the educational, socialising, therapeutic value of such activities as drama, music-making, music and movement, we were surprised to find so little emphasis on these activities. In our own unit 'drama' ranges from spontaneous improvised drama, through the acting of plays written by the children, to a modified form of psychodrama. In seven units, only published plays were used; in one, there was a pattern similar to our own and in four, there

was virtually no drama. It seemed that staff wished to have such a programme, but were in some difficulty about starting, felt uneasy about their skills in this field. Similarly we were surprised to find in only three units, provision for listening to music, singing together, percussion band, music and movement; in three, provision for none of these and in six, a very limited range.

Following our experience of the value and success in having our patients of primary school age produce a newspaper, we were disappointed to find that only two of the units visited did so.

We were keen to compare our own experience of the value of recent developments in teaching mathematics to primary school children, but were not able to do this successfully. Such impression as we gained is that changes in methods in the U.K. have not been, to any noticeable degree, paralleled in the units visited.

CONTROL IN THE SCHOOLROOM

In all cases, teachers were regarded as responsible for the supervision and control of children while in the classroom. Asked whether, in the classroom there was more or less control of children by staff than in other parts of the unit or during after-school hours, in two units the answer was 'considerably more'; in eight 'more'; in two 'about the same' and in none 'less'. We are uncertain whether these observations express the opinion that more control in the schoolroom is necessary or whether they implied that teachers thought there was too little control elsewhere.

Asked about the response to the child whose behaviour is disruptive to the rest of the group there was, as expected, no simple invariable rule. While in most units the teacher responded and took charge, in at least five the child was removed by the teacher from the classroom and 'handed over' by her to the charge of child care or nursing staff (the 'liaison nurse' or 'nursing patrol'). In another unit, the child was sent to one of the co-principals of the school, outside whose office he might find a queue waiting!

Having at one time practised the system of having no nursing staff in the classroom and of the teacher 'handing over' to nursing staff children whose behaviour was disruptive to the work of the

class — with all that this implied and led to in terms of tensions between teacher and nursing staff — we have no doubt that the present system whereby teacher and nursing staff share responsibility for the response to such situations is in the better interests of both children and staff.

STAFF COMMUNICATION

We were unable adequately to assess the patterns of communication between teachers and non-teaching staff. Probably this was the most difficult aspect to assess, on a short visit and to record, by using a questionnaire. We enquired about the type of meetings regularly attended; the nature and purpose of informal meetings; the records and reports used; the methods of assessment and review; the teachers' share of responsibility in decisions about discharge; the teachers' interest or practice in follow up after discharge. From such observations as we could make we can comment on the range of practice: from the unit where teachers and other staff reviewed children's progress only once per year, to the majority where teachers (or a representative) meet regularly and frequently to evaluate progress and plan treatment; and on our impression that in most units, teaching and non-teaching staff were separate groups with roles firmly, even rigidly defined, with little room for overlap or interchange.

GENERAL IMPRESSIONS

The way the staff of a unit greets and responds to a visitor is one index of its corporate life. Each visit had been arranged weeks in advance and details confirmed some days before, but this did not prevent the reception at two units from being lukewarm and uninterested. But this was not universal and in most places the visitor was warmly welcomed as an interested, serious observer, while the enthusiastic staff of some units used the occasion for the exchange of ideas, anxieties, problems and plans. The staff of most units were aware of limitations, conscious of shortcomings, of the need for development, of ways in which programmes and skills might be improved.

But while we wish and plan to develop in the sense of gradually evolving new approaches and better methods, in the units visited the tendency seemed to be a desire for all-embracing,

radical, quick-acting change: programmes seemed capable of total change rather than of continual growth.

In the well-endowed, superbly equipped and well-staffed larger units the children's day seemed over organised, with teaching and non-teaching staff organising separate programmes, neither apparently related to the other as part of a total programme. It is doubtful if the staff of these units thought of the children as being over organised, but to us there seemed little opportunity for children to be alone, to do what they wanted, to act out or work through their needs. In the smaller units there was room and opportunity for free play, but in some of the larger units this was not possible (should such units ever be so sited and equipped that children do not have the opportunity either in the building or in its surrounding grounds for free play?). Everyone seemed to need to be doing something all the time: we wonder whether this is an appropriate milieu for the therapy of the type of children admitted to such units.

Though in seeming contrast to some of the observations we have made, we found that everywhere adults were accessible to children and there was that first and essential commodity which cannot be organised, the lively response of deep interest in and affection and respect for the child as an individual.

There was the welcome opportunity to meet psychiatrists, psychologists, nurses and child care workers as well as teachers and to meet those who share the same hopes, anxieties and perplexities and the same frustrations imposed by working within a large system which is not attuned to the needs of the emotionally disturbed child.

It is not easy to summarise the threatening and overwhelming situation in New York where the inevitable outcome of racial problems and overcrowding is the plight of 'disadvantaged' children yielding a high proportion of the emotionally disturbed. Much is being done by a variety of new programmes but in New York as elsewhere the pressure for places in residential units seems unlikely to slacken in the near future.

Some of the staff seemed to consider that larger units were necessary, being more economical and more efficient: we wonder whether there is any justification for this view. We wonder whether the needs of emotionally disturbed children can adequately be met when teaching and non-teaching staff are in so many ways separated. And from visiting these twelve units we see no reason to change our opinion that it is in the interests of the children to site such units away from large urban settings, despite real disadvantages to parents and staff.

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Recent Developments in Primary School Mathematics

By **G. M. BRAVERY**

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'I am hopeless at reading. I absolutely detested it at school and I have never understood it'. This shocking remark could become a commonplace by substituting the word 'mathematics' for 'reading', when it would shock only a few. It is a socially acceptable boast to claim to be 'number blind' but unforgivable to be illiterate. There has been such general antipathy to mathematics that any utterance about one's weakness mathematically is sure to find an understanding audience. The widespread dislike of maths is also indicated by the large number of secondary children who, given the chance, drop mathematics before reaching 'O' level, despite the advantage it would give them in a career. It has always seemed to me that the number of mathematical failures and 'drop-outs' was disproportionately high. I would have thought it likely, in the nature of things, that mathematical ability would be distributed throughout the school population in much the same way as other abilities. It seemed, however, that a pressure

has moulded an emotional dam against the flow of mathematical development of a large proportion of our children, distorting the apparent spread of ability. This pressure, I think, has been the result of misguided teaching.

Mathematics was rarely used as a means of self expression or directly connected with real situations. It was as though we were teaching children the grammar and spelling of mathematics without ever letting them write freely or giving them anything to write about. Very few children ever saw the beauty in mathematics or had the satisfaction of discovering something for themselves. Though it is true that many children enjoyed 'doing sums' they were still as far from true mathematics as a grammar exercise is from a poem or story. This is why many teachers are looking for ways to encourage their children to use mathematics creatively.

Another outcome of the traditional heavy reliance on rote learning and routine 'sum solving' is that the stimulus tends to be external — from team points to simple avoidance of reprimand. It is not too difficult to train children to give the right answers most of the time, in this way, but so often genuine understanding has been lacking and only the teacher's tick showed the child that he had done what was required. Computation done in this way denies many children the inner conviction that they are working correctly so that every move is overcast by a shadow of doubt. Each addition to the children's knowledge increases their insecurity until for many their only escape is to close the mind to further instruction. This emotional block is what I think most people mean by number blindness. Teachers in search of support for their move away from 'abstract' sums have found a good deal of comfort in the writings of Piaget, and improving understanding of learning processes and child development has contributed to the desire to change the way we have taught mathematics.

Outside the school there is also strong incentive for looking critically at the traditional syllabus which had not been really overhauled for a hundred years. I can well believe that a Victorian teacher was fairly sure that he knew

what he was preparing his children for, and that the syllabus reflected their anticipated needs. I cannot recall ever needing to add (let alone multiply, divide or decimalise) miles, furlongs and chains outside a classroom, can you? Our needs have changed, but I doubt if any of us would care to predict what calls will be made upon our pupils in the course of their life times, so I feel that what knowledge they have must be acquired in a way that allows them to adapt it to whatever circumstances they will meet. Successful teaching will be marked by the activity of thought of children rather than by their ability to apply routine skills. If our children are not going to be intimidated by gadgets in the Computer Age we shall need to place great emphasis on understanding of principles of the traditional part of the syllabus, as well as widening the field of knowledge with topics appropriate to our changing world.

I hope I have indicated that for the sake of the children, for the sake of the future of society and for the sake of the love of mathematics this is a good time to be changing the way we teach. This is not a sudden development, of course, and for many years a growing minority of teachers have been groping along (often in isolation), making alterations which would not upset colleagues, parents and examination prospects. News of experiments of the bolder and more talented teachers has been helping editors of education magazines to fill pages for some time, but two or three years ago we entered a period of rapidly accelerated change. The Nuffield Project and the establishment of Teachers' Centres has no doubt influenced progress but clearly their message found an audience which was largely receptive. On every hand we find teachers giving earnest reappraisal of their work in mathematics. Although it is true that most of this could not properly be called 'new mathematics' it should be remembered that much of it is new to those who are now teaching it and its introduction can be demanding on the hard-pressed teacher trying to cope with changes in many parts of the curriculum. Despite this, the mathematics reform in Primary Schools is continuing to gather momentum.

The arithmetic I remember from childhood was invariably sandwiched between assembly and playtime, a programme which left the rest of the day free for more pleasant things. Nowadays, I suppose that most infant school Wendy Houses go through periods of being a shop, railway station, post office or cafe and good infant teachers are quick to exploit the possibilities of these situations. With greater awareness brought about by the newer methods children can find mathematics in all manner of things at all times of the day. I can think of a group in an infant class which spontaneously broke off in the middle of a long jump 'championship' to fetch tape measures, paper and pencil and was soon involved in a thorough investigation of measurement (at their level) and its recording. Another class of children who had 'discovered' prehistoric animals were so intrigued by their size that, using a small model of the Tyraunosaurus that we had borrowed from the Museum, they were soon examining the question of scale. The mathematical enquiry was just one aspect in the exploration of this topic. Similarly, another group's curiosity about Goliath's stature given in cubits led to the construction of giant-sized figures and some interesting work on the history of measurement. Cookery and the care of animals are two well-loved activities that involve weighing and shopping. Not all mathematical experience will develop as it were incidentally from general class activities. Teachers need a programme of practical work and a supply of stimulating materials to give their children a satisfactory background and it is still necessary to practice the basic skills.

Junior School Arithmetic used to be principally one page of sums after another, mostly without reference to real materials, but sums are only one means among many for recording mathematical experience. A group of adults with a problem will discuss it, and so will children, given the chance. On some occasions this debate might be the only form of recording that is necessary, but in this kind of situation the teacher is encouraged to treat her children as people rather than as pots to be filled with knowledge, or as seals to be taught a new trick. Indeed, it is vital that

children do verbalise their impressions of the practical experience in order to generalise and make explicit their findings and conclusions. Children are also prepared to write freely and creatively and teachers should be ready to make use of this skill for mathematical recording as the most appropriate development of their classroom activities. Graphical work, no longer a jealous mystery guarded by secondary schools, is the natural means of expression of children with a good background. This form of recording has the advantage of leading to further discoveries. A good deal of the structural apparatus which teachers now make or buy is designed to give children concrete mathematical experience. The completion of the task with the apparatus may be the only formal record necessary, written work not being required.

Such variety demands considerable adaptability from the teacher. She must be prepared to let groups and individuals work apart from the rest. She must be ready to allow children to complete a topic while interest runs at full spate. As we have seen, lessons which began as P.E. or History or R.E. may end some days later with a set of topic books, or an exhibition that includes graphs, calculations and other mathematical expression amongst all the other material. As the barriers between subjects disappear, so do timetables. The classroom, also, is too confined to allow all these activities to take place within its walls. So we find that the new approach to mathematics has implications throughout the school day. The organisation of time and space is likely to become increasingly flexible as this kind of teaching becomes more widespread, and this will affect all parts of the syllabus.

Apart from the way in which mathematics is learned, however, I have suggested that the content needs modification. The use of graphs has already been adopted by most primary schools and as this is more fully developed the use of co-ordinates and ordered pairs and other algebraic notation will find a natural place. Ideas of space and shape can be made explicit without resorting to emasculated Euclid. Concepts of similarity and symmetry, a better

grasp of volume and area can be developed through experiences appropriate to the primary child.

At the same time computation remains a most important branch of the subject. I believe, though, that we need to examine critically the work we have been doing. In many cases, I am sure that if we attempt less computation in the infant school but make thoroughly sure of what we do, not only will the results be better later, but the children's attitude towards the subject will improve. The addition and multiplication 'bonds' are still basic requirements and while it is true that it helps many children to systematise them in tables to be memorised, greater adaptability in their application and speedier memorisation for others comes best by presenting them in a variety of situations. (Practical experiments, table squares, structural apparatus, Napiers Rods, Calculating machines, slide rules, number patterns etc.) Some of the operations we practised on vulgar fractions are of less value in a world that is becoming decimalised (or metricated), and the adoption of a decimal currency must surely give us more time for interesting new topics. A careful scrutiny of the customary pages of sums devoted to the application of the 'four rules' to measurement and weight ought to reduce the burden of work. Some of the exercises we ask children to deal with are highly specialised and much of this could be regarded as particular application of work in different number bases. I have also found that work with other number bases (with or without Dienes' rods) is valuable in giving a clear grasp of place value and other notational concepts. In particular, the applications of binary notation are of such importance and interest that I should include these topics in the Primary syllabus. The value of a 'sets' approach to a Not all are convinced that it shows advantage over number has yet to be fully exploited, I feel. the traditional attitudes in the primary school.

Many teachers would dispute that much of this work is new. Certainly, this kind of approach to teaching is common place in infant schools and a good, progressive infant school will not be

greatly disturbed by these ideas. Some teachers will note a change of emphasis, however, because whereas practical work tended to be regarded as a means of practising skills already taught, it is now suggested that the best learning situation is found in the practical work. Most Junior Schools, would find the full implementation of the new approach a considerable revolution. No doubt, decisions on what to leave out and what to include in the course will become a matter of permanent debate. As with history or geography where there is no single agreed correct syllabus appropriate to the primary school, so it may be we will learn to accept that not every child will have the same mathematical background. Here the question of record keeping arises and this is a topic ripe for considerable development. But in my view, far more important than the detailed changes in content of the course are the changes in attitude of mind, the changes in the organisation of the school and classroom, and most of all the changes in personal relationships that are implied by the new approaches to the teaching of mathematics.

Developments of this kind cannot be expected to mature overnight, but the readiness of most of our primary teachers to adapt themselves is a healthy indication of their determination to meet the challenge of their times.

Notes on the S.E.A. Craft Conference, Chichester, 28 August - 7 September, 1967

Mary Caroline Richards

The 5th S.E.A. Craft Conference was organised by Paul Barron, Rowena Clayton, Ronald Hackney, Henry Hammond, Jeff Lowe, Ella McLeod, Dimelo Middleton, Barbara Mullins, Helen Pincombe, Seonaid Robertson, Ann Stannard and Helen Gray.

I attended the S.E.A. (Society for Education

through Art) Craft Conference at Chichester (a) because I am a potter and am connected with craft and education in America, and I wanted to get a feeling for how English craftsmen and teachers do something like this, and (b) because Seonaid Robertson, whose spirit in art education affects me deeply, told me about it, and I take her tips seriously, and (c) because there was to be a workshop in kiln building, and that's something I've never heard of a workshop in, let alone experienced.

I enjoyed myself so much, (in spite of falling in a flower bed in the dark on the night of a barbecue in the garden behind Bishop Otter College, where we were building kilns, and spraining my leg), I was so inspired by the feeling of process present in this conference, that when Seonaid Robertson said she had to write a report for **The New Era** and didn't know how she would find the time, I offered to have a go at it.

For one thing, this conference comes very clean and clear of obsession with 'beautiful effect'. Also it generates an undivisive psychology which puts every person at the center, no matter who he is or why he's there. There was no oneupmanship of any kind. It was just this simplicity of mood, humanness of relationship, honoring of privacy and the wordless, which seemed so good. Plus, of course, its focus upon natural materials.

The S.E.A. has held these conferences roughly once every five years, during the past 18 years. Its purpose is to give an experience of a craft, in depth, with all its phases represented, choosing those crafts which begin in a contact with natural materials. This year there were 2 crafts represented: textiles, and pottery. (In the past there have been stone-cutting and wood-carving, as well.) You could sign up for spinning, dyeing, or weaving; making pottery, or kiln-building. Glaze work was given in addition in after-tea sessions, stressing simple ingredients such as ash, clay, spar. Each 'student' (most students were 'teachers') was asked to select one area and stick to it. Each special area, however, was experienced in relation to the craft as a whole, which was going on visibly all around you. Though I was concentrating on kiln-building, I made several pots because I

wanted to have something in each of the kilns we built. Most people felt the same. So we were pinching and throwing on the wheel in spare moments.

If you signed up for pottery-making, you chose to focus on either wheel work, coiling, or slab work, again within a total context. The amount of instruction depended on how much you wanted. There was a continuum of looking and sharing. Special fun was had in slip glazing and trailing wet slip on wet glaze on leather-hard bowls. And brush work on long scrolls to get the feel into the hand of a brush stroke on a pot. Additional demonstrations of wheel throwing, trimming, handle-pulling, and of raku firing, were given by a week-end guest potter. Also one memorable day a cactus sitting in the pottery appeared in full orgiastic blossom, an all-day happening.

In America, the building and firing of kilns has tended to be the province of specialists. (Perhaps this partly accounts for the popularity now of raku firings, since the whole scene of making the pots, making the kiln, firing and cooling, glazing or reducing the body with leaves, tends to have a continuity and simplicity easy to share). There tends to be a widely held assumption that a kiln is either an intricate and expensive entity, not to be undertaken by the likes of us, or a baby-affair uninteresting to adults.

At Chichester, the problems of design and materials were solved in ways that make kiln building widely practical, at different levels of complexity. And once you begin to experience the relationship of flame and form, the possibilities of 'making a kiln of one's own' stir the inventive imagination, of children and adults alike.

We built 6 kilns: 2 permanent stoneware kilns one oil-drip and one wood-burning; and 4 simpler 'instant' kilns: a raku kiln, coke fired; a sawdust kiln; a peat-fired kiln; a saggar kiln, coke-fired. It was hard work, and most of us had never done anything like it before, but we got really swinging with cutting brick and slopping mortar and fitting courses. But it took the whole 10 days to add up. In other

words, it was an art form in itself. Half way through, it seemed mostly sweat and grind, but at the end, with the kilns firing and the pots going in and coming out and everybody chopping wood or kibitzing, it felt like that big cactus opening out. It was the experience as a whole that was so enriching.

Polished sculptural pots turned black, grey, pink, in smouldering sawdust and peat. Some people had supposed these simple kilns too childish to bear much promise for grown-up artists, but we found out different. It was fun to tend the peat kilns through the night (we were up anyway firing the oil-drip stoneware saltglaze), blowing down their smoke-hole pipes to be sure they were getting air. There's something about living fire that is special. And something about clay changing in it. And something about feeling-through-the-making-all-the-way-yourself.

During the kiln-building, we grew to an understanding of the inner form of the firing chamber, fire-box, and flue, by following the nature and flow of flame and the gathering of heat. We learned to understand how to build kilns by observing fire. It was a revelation, like rediscovering nature. I was slow-witted (perhaps awestruck?) and I know I will have to practice years of this art of the fire before I have it in the grain of my being, but no matter. There were days of cutting and fitting bricks, mixing fireclay-sand-water for mortar, lifting and hauling and levelling, even casting a top for one of the kilns, before the miracle of transformation could take place inside. What a lesson in patience and humility. Our fantasy may trace on, but meanwhile there'll be no finished pots until the bricks are cut, fitted, and laid. And the fuel properly fed. How partial it is to think of the potter's art as the moulding of clay. What a blessing to share an art of forming the fire. Also to feel again how a new kiln is a new being, you never know exactly what it will do. We may have our theories and our hopes, but they will be corrected by what the fire actually does, or doesn't.

We built outside in all the kinds of weather there were. Naturally, on the night of the first big firing, we had the worst gales and rain of

the summer. But that's all right. We rigged up tarpaulins for kiln-watchers and pressed on. Next day I went into town to buy a raincoat and hat, and the weather turned fine.

I was only an observer of what went on in textiles, but there was a great deal of bubbling and steaming and brewing in the dye shed, with vegetable and chemical dyes, and the dripping colors festooning the outdoor corridor where we walked. A wool sorter came to demonstrate his art. He has been a fleece-sorter for 50 years, and can tell between his fingers what any hair will best do for: coat? blanket? sweater? baby clothes?

Also we had some special events: a showing and explanation of hand-made papers, wonderfully presented by a young woman who teaches children as well how to make paper from grasses and rags. There was another showing of children's work in vegetable dyeing, not only the yarns, but short written compositions, decorated with drawings of the plants, carefully spelling out what they had done. Unforgettable colors, and the joy and seriousness of the children shone through their words about the barks, leaves, lichens, roots, flowers they had gathered and used.

There was shown a documentary movie about an old-time English potter. And a few Japanese films on woodworking and pottery.

The food was good. There was a lot of talk and rapport from workshops to dining room and later to the bar for those who tipped.

I was so moved by feelings of 'wholeness' and 'personal involvement' engendered by the leaders of this conference, that I hope to find ways of sharing them in America. I am trying to get something going in pottery, in this spirit, this summer at a friend's farm in Pennsylvania. One of the kiln-builders from Chichester shares this hope, and will come to sow seed in our land. I look forward to a two-way street between individual craftsmen in different countries.

I felt at the S.E.A. Conference as if it were a new community deeply rooted in earth and spirit,

practising consciously the arts of making and sharing. What joy and labor, all together. How hard it is to speak of it plainly. As hard as speaking of any art at all: this art of following through the making of something from natural materials to personal co-creation. It has its counterpart in our lives, and in other arts such as poetry and pedagogy. I have tried to point to some of these correspondences in my book *CENTERING: IN POTTERY, POETRY, AND THE PERSON* (Wesleyan University Press 1964). I was invited to England this year to participate as visiting professor in the Curriculum Laboratory at Goldsmiths' College. There we focussed on interdisciplinary enquiry and making understood, in a wide sense, — an effort to break down the barriers between 'subjects' in Secondary Schools and to present a rather more integrated curriculum. This life-line brought me also to Chichester. The work done there is a seed-bed for curriculum and for person.

Experiences of Team Teaching

by **Charles L. Hannam**

Department of Education, University of Bristol.

'The main observation, the one I made at the time was the ability range we taught; quite honestly I did not expect them to be that range, such a low ability range; I did not realise that half of them could not read or could not understand what was said.

(*A Student.*)

'If I may make an invidious selection, Chris's stands out, quite outstanding, intensely simple, something that I would have taken two minutes to say in teaching at the Grammar School, you took twenty minutes over it but I can remember it now and I am sure the children can.'

(*Senior History Master Bristol Grammar School.*)★

'... they are taught this way, they are taught as a large group by the people who take them and then split off into smaller groups. They have been taught like this since they came to the school this

★*Mr. Peter Warkins*

is not a sudden new thing put on for your benefit; this is the normal pattern of their teaching. ."

(*History Master at Henbury Comprehensive School*)†

These extracts are taken from a discussion with post-graduate students after they had completed five 'team teaching' sessions at the Henbury Comprehensive School during the summer term. I outlined my scheme for enabling students to take part in 'Team Teaching' in *New Era* Vol. 48 No. 1. As planned, students were left to organise their own groups and were expected to learn from their own mistakes rather than have an ideal organisation put before them and asking them to imitate it. There was a good deal of feeling at this meeting; the students wanted to 'get at me' they were cross and the sense of the meeting was that they had been exposed to an exceedingly challenging situation without having been prepared for it adequately. I called the meeting because I thought it was important to bring these feelings to the surface and I recorded it with the consent of the students because I felt that a record of what was said might be valuable from three points of view: the dynamics of the group, the implications of arranging team teaching work and practical points which might emerge and would help future teachers in a similar situation. With me at the meeting were two experienced teachers, one of whom is my associate tutor and the other teaches history at Henbury and arranged for the students to come to the school and has continuous experience of team teaching. He was in charge of the forms our students taught. I have previously stressed that it is not enough that schools arrange for block time-tabling and hope that team teaching emerges but that a new generation of teachers must be produced in secondary schools who take it for granted that teachers work together and not in isolated enclaves of the old fashioned class room. The discussion we had will reflect some of the difficulties that will be encountered when team teaching is introduced into schools. The objections our students raised, what they found difficult and the defences they raised against innovation may well resemble those in schools when change is proposed. It is equally important to see that these difficulties are not impossible

†*Mr. Colin Bayne-Jardin*

and that the capacity for help and mutual encouragement exists side-by-side with conservatism and reluctance to experiment.

Whenever a learning experience is arranged the problem is to make it real. Real in the sense that the learner is involved and responsible for his actions, that the possibility of growth and development is not overlooked and that anxiety is a stimulant rather than a paralysing. To set the scene: I gave an introductory talk, I referred the students to the somewhat limited and esoteric literature on the problem of team teaching, I outlined to them how the scheme was to be organised, handed out topics to be taught, lists for them to choose their own team partners and explained that my role was to be that of observer rather than judge. Each group had to arrange a lesson and the follow-up work on their own. I was prepared to help with books or materials and I warned them against using too elaborate techniques. In the past we had an unfortunate team lesson when the children staggered out after one and a half hours, saturated with educational gimmicks and a surfeit of 'hardware'. I stayed in the background while the students prepared their lessons but obtained materials for them when asked. I listened to a tape that had been made, obtained an African sculpture and lent some books and pamphlets. I was not present at the lessons except for one. This was intentional, I did not want to be seen as an assessor and the lessons were not to be seen as competitive exercises. Although this was my reasoning the students did not see my behaviour like this. During the meeting I was accused of neglect '... I remember asking in the Department whether one could involve the children in the actual lesson and I got a non-committal reply to this' 'I feel annoyed because I was completely unprepared for the experience' 'I just did not know what to do' all these quotes from one student who was the leader of the 'opposition movement' during the discussion. During this part of the discussion the fight/flight principle predominated and I had become the bad or incompetent leader. Whenever teachers try to make their students learn by experience this sort of hostility is to be expected. Provided that the teacher feels secure in his aims and intentions he can cope with this sort

of hostility and the discussion can be turned to good use beyond aggression.

Another product of the anxiety caused by an unfamiliar experience was the phantasy that the children were illiterate and quite incompetent. This is a defence often used by practising teachers and there can be few staff-rooms where this sort of feeling is not expressed. On another level it showed that the students were aware that they had to teach children of a wide range of ability. 'If we are to have a big group we must have a true mixed ability group and the lead lesson becomes all the more difficult where you have to satisfy both your 110 to 120 IQ and 80 to 90' (history master from Henbury); 'but take the problem, the worksheets for instance for truly mixed ability; you have got children who can't read and children who are going to university — if you prepare two or three special worksheets you are streaming again' (student); 'you want to be careful about saying they can't read; you have to take those out—they have special classes' (master); (student):- 'I don't think everybody appreciates that there were no really low stream children in our group.'

What seemed to be said during this part of the discussion was that the Comprehensive school can't work because there is such a wide range of ability and that post-graduate students can not be expected to teach children of low ability. Alternatively such children must be isolated and can not take part in team teaching. The idea of an alpha, beta, gamma society is deeply ingrained. During the discussion a sub-group emerged those who had taught in comprehensive schools during their school practice, and they claimed it was possible to involve all the children.

The behaviour of the children also presented problems to one group and the noise level was higher than they had expected. Susan (student) 'I know this is terribly petty; what really worried me was the noise level not in the actual teaching but in the follow-up. I was quite happy to be walking round chatting but I thought this would disturb other people and then I thought 'they go on talking, you can't keep them quiet — do you expect these forms to make more row than the others?' Henbury History master:-'well, I went there

from a grammar school, thoroughly structured, nobody spoke in my form, if they did they got thumped, you spoke when you were spoken to — I had to re-assess myself on that score in fact you have to; the only criterion is that you have to be heard. There is a noise level beyond which you can do nothing and that is silly but you have to be prepared, if the children are really interested there is what somebody called the 'idle hum of industry' and you have to accept this. It is really very difficult — I still am not very good if the children are chatting. You have to accept that they are much less inhibited than so called middle class children; they will really tell you if they are interested and if you don't listen they will bellow at you. What are you to do? tell them to shut up? you to use it in order to get something out of it.'

Working with large groups worried students also because they felt that there was a lack of personal contact. I wondered whether this was so important for as short a time span as a twenty minute lead lesson. Was this another defence against novelty or was this a genuine problem? In the conventional lesson there is not nearly as much contact as students tended to believe.

There is questioning but invariably there is a silent group who have contracted out of the lesson and who are rarely contacted as individuals. A good deal of time is spent during teaching practice on impressing students that they must deal with children as individuals whenever possible. With some it is difficult even to learn the children's names and only the very best and worst stand out. In the follow-up lessons the groups involved were rarely more than twenty, which is not bad by secondary school standards. Student: 'I was a bit affronted really, two girls in my group weren't working or doing anything at all — I just left it at that and walked away and I did not think that was the object of the exercise.' Another 'the follow-up was enjoyable because I was actually dealing with kids on a personal level' 'What I did, there were two lads who felt themselves complete tearaways and I went up to them and started chatting about sports and athletics and took about five or ten minutes with them, just looking round to see that everybody else was working and I managed to get

them to work.'

It may be that these remarks were made at the 'look what you have made us do' level; first you tell us to teach children as individuals and then you put us in charge of an ill-behaved mob and we don't even know what we are supposed to do with them. It has seemed to me that the beauty of team teaching is that it provides opportunities for children of varied ability to share an experience and then draw out of it whatever they can. After all that is all a lesson usually sets out to do — a period of lecturing or exposition followed by attention to those children who want to ask questions or take part in discussion. With the others there is some sort of collusion to leave one another in peace. The 'lead lesson' can be effective because it uses the varied talents of the group of teachers engaged in the enterprise. Henbury Master: 'I think team teaching works and even if it does not work it is far better than teaching in the class room because it leads to this sort of discussion and the other main joy about it is that you can use different abilities we all teach differently, some of us teach something better than others — well let's face this and use it. Some things work with Mr. X which wouldn't work with me. He is very good at getting a board and covering it with drawings and holding them in this way — I can't draw, squares is about as far as I go. You have to come to terms with this and this is the advantage of the team'. A student: 'take Janet, I couldn't have done that. Janet could sense how the story was going down, it's partly her, the way she tells a story; if it was on tape no one would listen'. There was then a recognition that the idea of team teaching might work and it was particularly important that one group had given a very successful lesson (see quotation at the beginning of the article). The team had become integrated although they had not found this easy: 'I found that it took a hell of a time; we must have met for a total of six or eight hours for this single lesson. I was getting a bit hot under the collar because we seemed to be wasting a lot of time.' C. L. H. 'what did you waste it on?' 'Well, sort of disorganised discussion; I was crying out for a chairman to get the discussion organised, I mean this quite seriously

— in the we just hammered this out between the four of us'. Another group:- 'the three of us experienced no great difficulty, we just met and chatted around, there was no great I want to do this or I want to do that but I would have hated to have to do this last term.' (the teaching practice term). Had the groups met regularly the difficulties might have lessened and they would have learnt to work together. During the short time available they learnt at least that harmonious working together is not easily achieved and that a clash of personalities may well spoil the joint effort. This may sound obvious on paper but in reality this will be the greatest stumbling block to the establishment of team teaching.

My own worry is how little most of the students seemed prepared to accept this sort of situation after a term's teaching practice. Those who had worked in comprehensive schools found this less difficult than the ones who had been in independent or grammar schools. When one remembers that most of the children in this country will be in comprehensive schools by the end of the end of the century, the preparation for comprehensive teaching is still very inadequate. Our students seemed unable or unwilling to distinguish between less able children and illiterates. When they prepared lead lessons relatively little time was spent on considering the children, most of the intellectual effort went on the material and even then we were not too impressed with the quality of that in three of the five lessons. What worried many of us was expressed by the Senior History Master:- I have got a niggling feeling about historical integrity — you are talking about someone who lived in a particular century in particular circumstances and even though you can't capture the whole thing in its historical setting, it could have been religious instruction or it could have been history or is the aim only to create interest?' we must give thought to the content of the lesson.

What emerges from the experiment then is that it is exceedingly difficult to prepare students (or anyone else for that matter) for a real experience. Theoretical lectures beforehand were largely ignored and it took quite some time before the student group could examine the problem

realistically and dropped its fight/flight assumptions. When under the pressure of a new and threatening situation the students found it difficult to adapt themselves. All their careers so far have been geared to success and it seemed difficult for them to tolerate failure or to profit from it.

CORRESPONDENCE

To the Editor

I would like, if I may, to make a few reflections on Mr. King's 'Reflections on the Brighton Workshop' — especially in that area where I feel my own attitude has been reflected rather distortedly.

Mr. King claims that my attack on the misuse of programming and teaching machines was a 'tilting at windmills'. Either Mr. King misread what I wrote, or else he is inferring that programming is universally applicable in all educational fields and subjects — and the latter idea is precisely what I was attacking. To quote from my piece:-

'My fears concern the education-inhibiting and literally dehumanising effects attendant *on the misuse* of teaching machines, and I believe that there is adequate evidence for inferring that *their misuse* will be infinitely greater than will their legitimate use, *restricted as the latter is to a very narrow field.*' (Emphasis not originally made.)

Later on I wrote:-

'... what would *I* suggest programming? Something other, that is, *than a mathematical or similar ratiocinatory process limited to the Sciences.*' (The latter emphasis not made originally.)

These two quotations surely show, unequivocally, that I believe that programming has a place in educational techniques, albeit a very limited one. How can this be fairly described as windmill tilting? On the other hand, in an article very much concerned to vindicate the role which programmed learning may play in contemporary progressive education, there is neither example

given to illustrate, nor any other indication given, that programming is suitable for 'something other than a mathematical or similar ratiocinatory process limited to the sciences.'

The *Times Educational Supplement* under the editorship of Walter James, is not notorious for tilting at windmills, so perhaps their comments on a publisher's survey of programmed learning recently published by them would be of interest:-

'It is a good method — Programmed Learning — for teaching mathematics and science and objective subjects; it has less to offer the others — the limitations are obvious. A programme is a fenced path. Education proper is learning to move securely over open country. The very logic of the programme is in one sense a weakness. Most of the time a pupil needs far more than to be escorted step by step, towards knowledge like a dog on a lead. He needs to find his own way. — But there are still times and occasions in the pupil's career when a programmed course will get some difficult point or principle into his head.'

I would concur with the attitude expressed here, that programmed learning could be useful for getting over some difficult point or principle in a mathematical or scientific subject. Would Mr. King? And even in these cases we must proceed with great caution as the Senior Science Master of The Haberdashers' Aske's School at Elstree brought home to us in a letter published in the following issue. He agreed that Programmed Learning could be useful where its scope was limited and its intention precise, but commented:-

'When your comment states that programmed learning 'is a good method for teaching mathematics and science and objective subjects it ignores not only the essentially experimental nature of any science (and it is difficult to see how this could be programmed without losing everything of value in it), but also the current trend (not confined to Nuffield schemes) away from the old style syllabuses obsessed with facts and standard techniques.'

Again, I wonder from various comments made

throughout the article whether Mr. King accepts the truth of McLuhan's slogan 'The medium is the message'. When Mr. King wrote about closed circuit television: 'The media were no 'message' — if by that is understood a challenge to frame a set of positive forward-looking principles that meet the innovations not piecemeal but comprehensively on their own ground.' — was he merely punning? Rudolf Klein has succinctly expressed McLuhan's meaning by:- 'The technology of communication shapes the way people see the world around them, the way they behave and the way they think.' Would Mr. King agree? And if so, does he not see an inherent danger in the use of teaching *machines* — even where programmed learning is acceptable?

It may very well be that he does not. I suspect that the essential difference between us is that we function on different 'wavelengths.' The following illustration does, I feel, typify this difference. Mr. King can entertain the idea that the experience of participating in Miss Windebank's musical demonstration might have been conveyed to millions through the medium — (presumably) — of television. For me, receiving the demonstration by that medium would have meant experiencing, in fact, a mediated experience — the lifeless shadow of a 'living experience' — by which latter term I mean an experience involving interaction between myself and other human beings.

John Danser
(alias John Danskin)

A report from the Tasmanian Journal of Education.

Counselling—A Role for Teachers by D. H. Simpson

(Mr Simpson is on the staff of the Devonport High School. In earlier years he undertook several courses in the United Kingdom on problems of personnel, management and industrial design.)

The subject teacher sees the student in a situation where there is a common interest in the work, and the classroom teacher sees the child in a more

relaxed and personal atmosphere that inspires confidence. This confidence, for any success in counselling, should be mutual and should be fostered at every convenient moment.

The first essential is to acquire an adequate background knowledge of weaknesses, strengths, vocational activities and other interests from the student record cards. The teacher must be able to comprehend and interpret standards, percentiles, IQs and the like. Such information is the very foundation of counselling and guidance.

The habit of student observation will sharpen and develop an understanding of child behaviour, its pattern and its development in the individual. Many teachers do not study children sufficiently as individuals, and make the mistake of teaching a class, thereby wishing on themselves disciplinary problems that could have been avoided by preparatory observations and analysis. Students need to be encouraged to share their personal and academic troubles before they reach a behaviour flashpoint. Although at such times it is more than obvious that there is a problem, it is often too late for effective counselling. It would surprise many teachers to realise just how many of the behaviour and study problems arise from personal trivialities that can be overcome by a sympathetic adult attitude when the teacher takes the initiative at the first sign of trouble.

The teacher needs to counsel where he can and, above all, where he has confidence in his own ability to do so, or should reach out for the specialised help that is available when he requires it. In fact, where guidance is at its best, the specialist works in close harmony with and is complementary to the class and subject teacher.

A basis of all counselling philosophy, respect for individual differences, forms an essential factor in every successful teacher's approach to his subject. The teacher needs to examine his scheme of work in order to encompass differences in progress, skills, and aptitudes. Individuality should be encouraged in the planning of theoretical studies and practical activities. Discovering and stimulating talent and creativity is as much the responsibility of the science and mathematics teacher as it is that of the art or craftwork teacher.

In a classroom situation, attitudes and skills need to be developed through home-room and group guidance, together with the promotion of leadership qualities. Success in this field lies in the participation interest of the teacher, and the teacher's attitude to his charges. Students are sensitive to teacher attitude to a remarkable degree, just as the conscientious teacher is aware of stress and other troubles before they form a behaviour pattern that can be clearly interpreted.

Student participation and acceptance of responsibility, what we might loosely term leadership development, can be gained through good teacher planning that sets up a classroom organization with opportunity for student collaboration. Intelligent and sympathetic direction, and occasional motivation, all have very desirable guidance features, although the providing of these is often irksome and soul-destroying unless the teacher really has the students at heart. It is so much easier to adopt a formal attitude to a class composed of non-entities. In the classroom, self-evaluation, small-group proposals, panel discussions, and selected extension work are but a few of the techniques that can be employed to foster individuality and leadership qualities at a class and subject level.

Many teachers ask whether students who have chosen a trade or profession need vocational guidance from them. All students need guidance, as do all teachers in an educational world that is continually increasing in its complexity. The subject teacher must know, more than any one else in the school, his subject and its application. His world should stretch far beyond the realm of mere instruction. He must make available to his students, their parents and the community, information on subject-related occupations, interests and other allied concepts. It is fortunate that there are so many good and useful sources of background information from which to draw, and it is in the interests of good education that the teacher makes full and adequate use of all these aids to keep up to date.

The current emphasis on academic and other highly-touted prestige occupations needs to be put into a true perspective by the conscientious class and subject teacher, by realistic guidance on the satisfactions and recommendations in trade and professional pursuits. Teacher-community involvement that encourages contact with parents,

with industry and with a variety of activities at more than a superficial level, facilitates and inspires confidence apart from easing the path of successful guidance. There is also a genuine need in our schools for guidance and investigation in moral and social expectations. If these measures are effectively employed, former pupils will retain school and teacher loyalties that can become valued aids in counselling at a school level.

The teacher is, without a doubt, in the best position to act as guide and mentor. To do the work of counselling properly requires professional integrity beyond the normal, and an understanding of humanity far beyond mere classroom technique. Yet it is something that most of us do to a greater or lesser degree every day with some child in our care. It is incumbent on us that, for the sake of our charges, we explore the gaps in our background, our professional training, and our humanity, that we may be adequate for the confidence we receive. When we are adequate, there is satisfaction in no small measure. Guidance and counselling success brings a student-teacher relationship that is stimulating. It forms study habits as an individual responsibility. Above all it brings a moral and social attitude that is beneficial towards both the school and the community.

Counselling is a progressive factor, and as such must feature in all schools at a classroom and staffroom level. It must play its part in all aspects of school life, and must be constantly in the minds of all who have to administer staff, subjects and time-tables, as well as children. Its importance to the academic success and social happiness of the school can never be underestimated. Staff meetings can never take the place of efficient staff counselling, just as courses and subject amplification cannot take the place of student guidance at an individual level. Where there is an inadequacy, a stress, or a lack of communication, it can often indicate the need for counselling or guidance at some level. With the expansion of educational needs today the individual student has an increasing involvement and this brings additional factors that can lead to a breakdown of performance, attitude, etc., that requires our constant attention. We, as teachers, have much more than a teaching responsibility, and that is a student responsibility. It is here that counselling can play its important role in education.

Book Reviews

Biology: The Perpetuation of Life

Nuffield Foundation Science Teaching Project

Longmans, 1967

Text V; pp 206; 17s 6d.

Teachers' Guide V; pp 234; 17s 6d.

The text, forming the last of a series of five giving a broad coverage of biology, is intended for students in the fifth form. It is divided into twelve chapters starting with discussion of the similarities and differences between different forms of life and how these might be determined, followed by an examination of the material of inheritance and the change of characteristics by mutations. The student is then led to a chapter on gene action and properties of DNA. There follows three chapters devoted to aspects of development. Different systems of breeding are then examined followed by a consideration of genes in populations, genetic selection and, finally, a short chapter on evolution. Each chapter examines one or more illustrative models in some detail with emphasis on experimental studies by the student, poses some relevant questions and concisely summarises the conclusions. Separately, there is additional 'Background reading' pertinent to the context of each chapter dealing perhaps with the historical aspects of important discoveries, with their practical application or with possible implications of new knowledge for the future. This seems to be a very desirable segregation — it is interesting and instructive reading but there is no obligation on the student to commit its content to memory for examination purposes with the risk of obscuring the essential information.

No doubt the order of presentation of the material was most carefully considered by the authors who, unfortunately, are not specified and was deemed to have been the most logical. Others might think some rearrangement to be desirable such as an earlier introduction to the concept of the gene now that this is reasonably well understood. The reason for interposing chapters on development between those on gene function and those on breeding, gene pools and selection is not readily apparent. While in this text they serve to introduce mitosis and cell differentiation problems of development do not have an obvious relevance to the subject of the perpetuation of life. It might have been better to have presented these as final considerations to emphasise that while development undoubtedly is genetically controlled we are largely ignorant of the underlying mechanisms.

It is regrettable that the subject of DNA duplication, although included in the teachers' guide, is not presented to the student. Elucidation of the structure and method of replication of DNA have been the most brilliant and exciting of genetic advances in the past decade. Nothing could be more fundamental to the subject of this text than the mechanism which ensures precise copying of genetic information for transmission from one generation to the next. The authors have gone so far in describing the structure of DNA that it is a pity they did not complete the story. Again one feels that present knowledge of the translation of information stored in DNA into the synthesis of specific proteins, through RNA, could have been imparted to the student using the simple manner in which the authors are so expert.

In textbooks it is essential that avoidable sources of confusion should not appear. The student would be

puzzled as to why the term 'chromosome rearrangement' was used (p. 62) to describe what was clearly to him a chromosome addition. He, similarly, having been told that base sequences determine inherited properties may be concerned as to why he must expect different living forms to show different base ratios (guide p. 96). Although it is a fact that they do show different ratios the enormous variety of different sequences possible using identical base ratios theoretically would more than suffice to differentiate any organism from any other. The single typographical error noted in the text occurs on p. 81 where g. is mistakenly printed for mg. One would have liked the authors to have used the unit millilitre (ml.) to denote fluid volumes instead of the rarely used /cm³.

The teachers' guide is complementary to the text and is clearly cross-referenced to it. Of particular value to the teacher are the detailed instructions relating to class practical work and advice on the avoidance of the many pitfalls which beset demonstrations involving living matter. Each chapter includes a statement of its objectives, instructs how these are to be established by experiment and provides answers to the questions posed in the text. It is easy, for those who know the answer, to ask what appears to them to be a simple question; to the student the same question may appear so difficult as to provoke a feeling of incompetence and lead him to conclude the subject to be beyond him, with consequent loss of interest. It is the reviewer's opinion that some in the text could provoke such reaction in the fifteen year old student, e.g. the question p. 66 (d) baffled competent geneticists over many decades. In each chapter the teacher is provided with additional illustrative examples supplementing those studied by the student and with a theoretical background to the particular topic in sufficient depth to accommodate difficulties which could arise in class. In addition he is given a most useful introduction to books recommended for further reading including those thought suitable for students, and is made aware of film loops and other teaching aids available to him. The guide ends with a comprehensive index to the five guides comprising the full course in biology.

Both the text and guide are thoughtfully planned, excellently written and consequently easily read. The material is presented in an interesting and stimulating manner and goes far towards achievement of the declared aims of the authors 'to foster a critical approach to the subject with emphasis on experimentation and enquiry and to produce a new approach to teaching'. The few criticisms appearing in this review are intended to assist, in a small way, towards the attainment of these desirable objectives.

T. W. Burrows

Coming next month

Towards a Creative Education by Ben Morris
A Serious Proposal for the setting up of non-schools by Seonaid Robertson
Before the New Maths Can Begin J. S. Stockwell
Movement with Mentally Handicapped Children Carmel Cassidy and other material.

East-Central Europe A geographical Introduction to Seven Socialist States

R. H. Osborne B.Sc. (Econ.), Ph.D.
Chatto & Windus; 1967; 384 pages; 33s

This is the latest book in the series 'Geographies for Advanced Study'. It is written by a member of the Department of Geography of the University of Nottingham and describes in some detail the geography of Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Yugoslavia, Poland and Rumania. These countries cover an area that the author knows well through travel and through discussions with professional geographers in Eastern Europe. The book fills a gap which has existed for too long in the geographical literature on East-Central Europe and is therefore to be welcomed as a much needed contribution in English on this area.

The author begins his first chapter by a discussion of the concept of 'The Three Europes' by which he implies that there are fundamental differences between Western Europe, East-Central Europe and the European part of the Soviet Union. He then goes on to examine the cultural background, languages and religions of his chosen area. This chapter ends by outlining briefly the development of Marxist thinking, its influence in Europe and traces out the ways in which the countries concerned came to be ruled by Communist type governments.

The second chapter entitled 'The geographical background' is a general survey of the relief, geology, climate, agriculture, industry, population distribution, communications and trade of the whole area. It attempts to give the reader a rapid overall view before he plunges into the details contained in subsequent chapters. The rest of the book is devoted to individual chapter by chapter studies of each of the seven countries mentioned above. Each chapter is divided into exactly the same sub-headings, namely Introduction, Historical Background, The Land, Climate and Soils, Land-Use and Farming, Industry and Mining, Distribution of Population and Chief Cities, Transport and Trade. This is an arrangement which is certainly convenient for the student seeking specific information, though possibly a little monotonous for the general reader.

The book ends with a series of appendices concerned with languages, the pronunciation of place names, statistical tables which in general give figures to 1963, and a very full bibliography.

There is no doubt in my mind that though this book breaks no new ground in terms of its thinking since it is essentially descriptive, Dr Osborne has done us a great service in collating a mass of information and bringing it together in this book. No-one can now plead that East-Central Europe cannot be adequately treated in schools and colleges because little has been written on this area, and as such this book ought to find its way into every school's geography department library. Although the book is well illustrated with maps, one often longs for photographic views of some of the areas described in the text, but one remains disappointed. The absence of photographs may have been a factor in keeping down the price of the book. It is not a book on which one might find an elaborate discussion of the problems of economic development and planning in the areas concerned, but such was not Dr Osborne's purpose.

Norman J. Graves.

A Textbook of Sex Education

Julia Dawkins

Basil Blackwell 15s

This little book of only 98 pages packs a great deal of helpful information into eight tightly written chapters.

Dr. Dawkins was for a number of years adviser in Health Education to the City of Oxford. Her brief and concise paragraphs are evidently based on a wealth of practical experience in schools, and a deep understanding of the needs of teachers and parents who wish to help children grow up.

Sex education is defined as a blanket term covering 'aspects of education which are concerned more with the development of children's personalities and attitudes, than with factual instruction.' In three sections of the book, the teacher is guided to find appropriate and sensitive methods of teaching infants and juniors, pubescent children and adolescents.

The fears and anxieties of teachers and parents when sex education is introduced may be dispelled by following the practical steps outlined. Dr. Dawkins stresses the need for good personal relationships between teams of teachers and parents, before children can be assisted to form healthy attitudes. She believes that teachers, suitably selected and trained for the work, can be far more valuable than visiting lecturers. Teachers should plan and take part in broadly based schemes that allow for the informal approach to meet the child's individual needs. A brief survey of the influences upon the child's development in the earliest years helps the teacher to understand the damage that might have been done and suggests ways in which the school may seek a remedy. Preparation for puberty is essential for every child, and an outline of a course of six or twelve lessons should leave teachers with no excuse for omitting these subjects from the curriculum. A realistic warning points out the dangers of written work falling into the hands of people who do not understand the problems of sex education.

An outline of the psychology of adolescence paves the way to the teachers' involvement in informal discussion. 'The personality of the teacher is more important than anything else.' The young adult needs help in dealing with situations, rather than factual instruction.

The sexual problems that a teacher is likely to encounter in school are discussed; the last chapter deals with selection and training of teachers for sex education. The compact style and brevity of this book should not mislead the reader into assuming that enough teachers with sufficient wisdom and lack of inhibition can be produced without a great deal of painful learning and re-learning. It is to be hoped that this book will serve as a spur. It is a pity that a page of somewhat unhelpful diagrams is appended, especially in view of Dr. Dawkins' remark 'Visual aids present a problem.'

Rose Hacker.

'The history of the cosmos is the history of the struggle of becoming.'

D. H. Lawrence.

Creativity in Schools

Dr. Margaret O. Wason

Getzels and Csikszentmihalyi define creative thinking as posing the problem as well as solving it or trying to solve it (Science Journal September 1967). Usually creativity is connected with achievement but in my opinion people can think and work creatively without necessarily breaking through to a point of achievement. Einstein and Infeld said that the formulation of a problem might be more important than the solution of it. Creativity is a way of operating — cognitively aesthetically and emotionally — which will find problems in a situation or material and will try to solve them.

Getzels and Csikszentmihalyi lament that schools occasionally have problem solving but not problem finding. There has certainly been a marked increase in problem solving in schools where the Nuffield mathematics and science schemes are operating. Lecturers on these subjects usually emphasise the work involved in preparing a great number of assignment cards. I have heard only one lecturer who talked of 'throwing cards out of the window'. Assignment cards can be as limiting as the textbook they are designed to supersede. It is true lecturers stress the need for open-ended situations and assignments: and I am in no way decrying the enormous improvement in learning situations brought about by the Nuffield schemes. But what about problem finding? Is this possible in schools?

Many years ago I started a discovery corner where young children (infant school), could explore and find out from collections of natural and man-made things. The children christened it a finding out corner and this developed in time into a finding out room. Children experimented with magnets, a compass, clocks, clockwork motors. They made static electricity with amber and wool and then found out how to connect wires, battery and bulb to get a light. Groups went round the room finding what would complete the circuit and what would not.

Six and seven year olds experimented to find out what floated. They found the use of air and transferred air and water, siphoned, used air to raise a sunken container, played with a U tube and Cartesian diver. A music table had different sized bottles, bottles with different levels of water, different sizes of drums, tubular bells, home-made stringed instruments.

Children played with torches and measured shadows. They watched the sun in the sky and linked with a compass and shadows.

They learned how to make a magnet and compass. They experimented with mirrors. They put sticks and spoons in jars of water and then used a magnifying glass. They gazed into prisms. They found 'rainbow colours' on a fly's wing, on a plastic ruler, on the skin which formed on water with flour in it.

Play with a car fitted with a tube and balloon introduced the child to jet propulsion. A candle on a wire and lit at both ends to make a seesaw introduced balance. The change in the wax, the change in clay when fired and in dough when baked, were an introduction to chemical change.

I was concerned with educating children who would be citizens in the next century. I believed such an environment would help to raise the I.Q. level and accelerate Piaget's stages of mathematical thinking. I am sure that I was also providing an environment highly productive of creative thinking. A six year old girl asked what made the different notes in the bottles of water. She went off to find out and when she had succeeded she spent the rest of the morning varying the levels of water and matching the notes to the xylophone. She then used this aesthetically to compose a tune. Here was a beautifully creative learning situation. The material set the problem for her. She tried various hypotheses, found one that worked, then used it to experiment further and to create. A beautifully rounded situation. Not all will be so complete and there must be a great many little pockets of creativity which go unobserved but are an important stepping stone in a child's development.

A five year old boy was quite apathetic in an ordinary class but in this finding out environment he came to life. He tried everything. Someone left ice by the heater. He looked at the pool, then got some wet mud and left it there. He studied the two results. Someone said the thermometer had been left in the sun and showed 32C. He looked at it thoughtfully and put some plasticine in the sun and watched what happened. He explored structural mathematical apparatus and made his own discoveries, using the adult to sort out his ideas. 'I have made a most interesting discovery', he announced one day. "All odd numbers have middles'. He tackled reading and writing in the same way, exploring words and testing them, planning and presenting a very finished piece of work.

Children put stones in jars of water. They linked this with siphoning and then studied the W. C. cistern. They buried dead animals and birds and dug them up to see what was happening to them. They experimented with rusts and moulds; they studied soil and the effect of light on plants. No subject is too abstruse if the material is presented at the children's level of development. If scientific achievements are presented at the level of their original discovery, they are understandable and the children often make the discoveries afresh for themselves. If you give a child a card telling him what to use in order to make an electric circuit, you are limiting the experience. Leave him to find out for himself. I watched a child who was supposed to 'discover' that he needed two wires to complete a circuit. He said cheerfully 'I've made it work' (with one wire). Some girls watched him and then found other ways of doing it.

Children can lead the adult if the situation is left free for exploration. An experiment with salt, sugar and flour in different jars of water led to the discovery of mould on the water with flour in it; then bubbles started rising which their experience led them to call air; there was a smell and finally one boy produced the word 'gas'. Only later did I realise they were re-enacting the 18th century discovery of

gases, which were at first called different kinds of air.

A group of children used mathematical rods to find out about the number 98. 'Let's try 9's', I heard one say. 'We don't need so many of these', he commented as he took up a handful. Here was exploration followed by estimation and further experimenting.

If the creative scientist is one who poses the problem as well as solves it or tries to solve it, as Getzels suggests, then surely in this environment we have scientists in embryo. But the young child's experience is whole and he does not operate on a subject basis. Three seven year old boys were experimenting with water. One said 'The water isn't coming through. Let's try it this way'. This is essentially cognitive. But one of these boys, backward in English, wrote his first story about a river with an obvious feeling for the texture of water. What they take out of their experience could well be aesthetic and yet expressed cognitively. One girl, who delighted in the view of something like Alice's hidden garden through an aperture in a tap she was studying, learned to write by recording precisely her finding out with materials.

Scientists talk of solutions 'coming into the mind'. Artists, poets, composers and writers talk of ideas 'just coming into the head'. This is how creative thought seems to the operator. To explain it the psychologist uses Freud's subconscious and Galton's 'antechamber' of thought and 'presence chamber'. They quote Freud's primary and secondary processes and think creative thinking is a product of the two, the primary being based on unreality and the secondary on reality. It has been argued therefore that scientific training needs a period of play and encouragement of fantasy. An infant school encourages play and the use of imagination and if an environment such as I have described is provided, the situation should be rich in creativity. Einstein in a famous letter said that this kind of play 'seems to be the essential feature in productive thought'. The play comes first and logical construction later, as we should expect from

Piaget's research on the different stages of thinking. All this explains why artists and scientists use much the same language to describe how they think.

Getzels and Csikszentmihalyi think there is a correlation between creative thinking and intelligence. Guilford's definition of divergent thinking (creativity) embraced all the qualities of thought used in solving problems for which there was no one answer. Convergent thinking (intelligence) was used when one right answer was possible. However, the work of Wallach and Kogan (*Modes of Thinking in Young Children* 1966), suggests that this is not so. Certainly it is not yet proved. In testing 150 ten year old girls they found four groups. They found high creativity and intelligence in one, high creativity and low intelligence in another, low creativity and high intelligence in the third, and low creativity and low intelligence in the last group.

We have to consider creativity as a wider concept than hitherto, to embrace all activity, cognitive and aesthetic. If we start with the youngest children and continue their pre-school exploration as a method of learning, creativity will develop in all its aspects. There will be an atmosphere of individual discovery and expression, where children feel secure because there are not wrong answers and methods but only different ones. The children are usually exhilarated and the method of discovery started in one sort of material is soon applied to the whole environment. The education of older children should be built on this. In the upper forms of secondary schools separate subjects could be used as a means of learning certain bodies of knowledge, but the adult student should be brought back to a total view of experience.

In a finding out environment such as I have described children build a richer model of the world which can be expressed creatively in drama, art, craft and language as well as thought. The aim of educators should be to provide a rich environment and a provocative one. Is it too fanciful to say that we don't want children always to work like beavers

within the limits of their framework. We want them to use one corner of the framework as the essential familiar starting point and then to take off from there, like birds, on a flight of creative thought and expression.

Patterns for Comprehensive Organisation

Hugh Fairlee, M.A., B.Ed., Director of Education County of Renfrew from a paper given at the Twelfth Annual Weekend Conference of the Scottish Section of W.E.F. at Pitlochry.

I. INTRODUCTION

In view of the titles for the other papers to be delivered at this Conference, I think that I should regard my paper as largely introductory, and also that it should concern itself with the introduction of a comprehensive school system within the area of an education committee, rather than within the school itself.

II. BACKGROUND

It would do no harm, — and perhaps be important — to sketch in the historical background. For no nation can be independent of its history, and the history of the development of a nation has a profound effect upon its philosophy and its debates, even when individuals consider themselves to be at their most objective.

The existence in Scotland of comprehensive schools — and here I would not wish to split hairs about what is a comprehensive school in terms of its intra-school organisation but rather regard the traditional Scottish rural secondary school as a comprehensive unit — the existence in Scotland of comprehensive schools side by side with the system which provides senior and junior secondary schools has come about almost as a matter of expediency.

One of the duties placed upon the newly created Education Authorities by the provisions of the 1918 Education Act was to prepare and submit for approval to the Scottish Education

Department a scheme for the adequate provision of all forms of intermediate and secondary education in day schools, and to carry such a scheme into effect. This demand necessarily required the provision of much additional accommodation for pupils who previously had continued a form of **supplementary primary school education** until they reached the leaving age, and this problem was solved in different ways by authorities with small centres of population and those with large.

In the former areas, the existing secondary school was seldom so large as to preclude a considerable expansion, and in almost every case the new provision was simply grafted on to the old. Additional staffing, accommodation and equipment, and the creation of shorter and more practical secondary courses alongside the traditional turned what had been academic schools of limited size into comprehensive centres for post-primary education designed to meet the needs of a whole community. Thus in many places were born the 'comprehensive' or 'omnibus' schools which form the present pattern of secondary education in Scotland outside of the cities and large centres of population. Such organisations were created in places such as Girvan, Oban, Anstruther, Forres, out of the older traditionally academic school.

In the large burghs and the cities, however, the sheer weight of numbers made a duplication of schools almost inevitable, and a major issue of policy had to be faced — as it has to be faced at the present time. Most authorities of size, having regard to their existing provision of school accommodation, decided against setting up several omnibus schools of identical type within a small area. Instead, they continued the established academic schools with a selective entry and developed alongside them, and eventually out of the 'supplementaries' two and three year schools for their less bookish pupils. Examples of this development are to be seen in the larger areas, where indeed even yet the junior secondary school is but a department grafted on to a primary department.

Although this system has been modified over the years, partly by the separation of secondary departments from primary and partly by the centralisation of those into larger units, this procedure has given us in the cities and large burghs of Scotland the present pattern of junior and senior secondary schools.

It is important to emphasise that the comprehensive schools of Scotland, and the senior/junior secondary schools, grew partly for educational reasons, and also partly from a hard-headed expediency which took account of the particular circumstances of particular areas, and did not try to impose universal solutions or centrally-imposed patterns throughout. It was not so in England, where there would almost have seemed to have been a rigid doctrinaire approach to the problem which resulted in small grammar schools and small secondary modern schools even in areas where economy of resources would have pointed to a very different solution.

I honestly believe that, as I think it was the *Journal of the S.S.T.A.* put it — 'For centuries, thanks to our Church, thanks to the Book of Discipline, we were far ahead of England in that by giving all our children as far as parents and the Kirk Session could afford it, an equal chance, and encouraging those who had the brains, we had disinfected education of the colour of class distinction that bedevilled it in England. Thus it is that the words 'Comprehensive Education' arouse in an English parent emotions which seem to be as much politico-emotional as honestly educational.'

It is important to get this whole debate about comprehensive education into perspective. Otherwise the impression is left that what we had had in Scotland is thoroughly bad and that all-through comprehensive schools are thoroughly good. Life is not as simple as that. There are very good senior secondary schools — and bad; very good junior secondary schools — and very bad; and very good comprehensive schools — and very bad. The issue is also clouded by the fact that by and large our T.V. programmes, our radio programmes, our newspapers, are largely produced for English

consumption and reflect English problems. They are conditioned by the needs of their market which is fundamentally English and with a different historical pattern of educational development.

For instance, England is still a long way short of having what could be regarded as a national pattern for education, which basically we in Scotland have enjoyed for generations. There is a complex system of state non-fee-paying schools, state fee-paying schools, public schools, church schools of various denominations, to an extent which would be bewildering to the Scottish parent. Until recently probably not more than an average of 15 to 18% of English pupils were admitted to their grammar schools. In Scotland the percentage has been nearer 35-40%.

One cannot blame the English parent for grasping so enthusiastically **any scheme** which would help to change this situation, and all the machine of propaganda has been thrown at him to ensure that the 'all-through comprehensive' is the medium for such a change. There has been precious little advice given to the public by the politicians that change might still be possible in another way.

In fact it sometimes seems to me that the long-suffering British public is in effect being told by those who have powerful channels for persuasion that there is really no debate — that change can only be synonymous with all-through comprehensives. And, you and I know, this is not necessarily so.

III. THE NEED FOR CHANGE.

All of this is not to say that even in Scotland change was not necessary, and indeed this is why several authorities had begun discussions, and in some cases had reorganised on comprehensive lines long before the Secretary of State issued his circular in 1965. Basically the reasons for change are as follows:-

(1) While there are different secondary schools, you have to select which children of but 12 years of age are to go to which senior secondary

or junior secondary school. And I for one think that it is fundamentally wrong to do so. It is inevitable that children must grow away from each other as they grow differently in intelligence, in interest, in work and occupation. It is inevitable that there be many such nations within a society — and this is no bad thing. But it does seem to me that this is an adult realisation and to thrust upon children by a technique of administration that at the outset there are two nations — and this at the age of 12 — is to create inbuilt prejudices which are later difficult to eradicate and unhealthy for the later national social cohesion which is vital.

(2) Selection involves testing. While I believe that transfer tests have with considerable accuracy performed the task called upon them to perform, at the same time their effect on the work of the primary school in these more enlightened times can be disastrous for the proper development of that work. It needn't come to an absolute choice, but if it were to be so, I would rather have no form of testing at all than that these new developments should be hampered in any way.

But if we abolish testing — as distinct from guidance — then equally we must abolish a transfer of children from our primary schools at age 12 into different secondary schools.

(3) Although there are a few notable exceptions, junior secondary schools have never been accepted by parents, by pupils or, more significantly, by teachers. Perhaps this very good idea was killed at the outset by the fact that it was usually the junior secondary school which received the outworn senior secondary building while the latter moved on to a bright new school; perhaps it was killed by the growing awareness of the Scottish parent of the fact that in the post-war world the race was to the swift, and the swift was the one with the pieces of paper labelled 'certificates'; and that from the outset, in the junior secondary school these were not obtainable. Perhaps it was killed by teachers themselves, who possibly because of their own background of education and training wished only to teach a subject to

pupils and found their satisfaction in seeing a pupil master a subject. And in this post-war world where teachers are scarce, and most graduates think upon leaving the College of Education that they are naturally intended to teach only senior secondary pupils and preferably the fifth year, this has meant that, apart from the dedicated — and thank goodness there are still many — the junior secondary schools have been desperately understaffed.

Whatever the reasons, these schools have never caught on, and without the confidence of the three parties involved have little hope of being successful.

(4) There has been, perhaps for reasons already given by me, a growing awareness that the junior secondary pupil of better ability has not been stretched to capacity. The better pupil undoubtedly has a sense of failure after the 11+ and a destruction in confidence.

(5) In recent years the 'O' Grade of the S.C.E. has been introduced, with the result that a tangible, meaningful certificate is now available to many for whom, through the former junior secondary/senior secondary system, there could have been no such opportunity. Evidence is available in plenty that many pupils allocated to junior secondary schools can, and do, given opportunity, succeed at this level in four, five and more subjects. Mind you, I doubt if Robert McKenzie would necessarily agree that they have also been educated, but for good or ill, it is very important to parents.

These and more reasons could be adduced for the argument that intakes to secondary schools should be educated in a comprehensive set-up. Fundamentally we must —

- (a) Remove the absolute need for Transfer Tests and thus free the primary school.
- (b) Obviate the need for selection into different secondary schools at the age of 12.
- (c) Create conditions which will allow pupils to reveal emerging abilities and propensities for at

least the first two years of secondary education and in these years will allow us to make adjustments as these develop.

(d) Allow more choice of the child's education to be in the hands of parents — including the right to make what we might consider the wrong decision.

(e) In the present conditions of society create conditions through the school to promote very necessary social cohesion.

There is little argument against the thesis that these conditions require the reorganisation of secondary education on comprehensive lines. Few differ in this, but differences exist on what comprehensive pattern is the best in the circumstances of the present.

IV. COMPREHENSIVE PATTERNS

There are perhaps four principle varieties of comprehensive organisation — and here I speak of organising a system of schools, not of organising within the school.

A. All-Through.

The 'All-through' Comprehensive School is a secondary school which receives all pupils from its catchment area into its walls as they leave their respective primary schools. It is 'comprehensive' in these respects, first, that all enter regardless of ability, the child who barely escapes being classified as mentally handicapped equally with the child who may be a near genius; secondly, that within the school, courses are devised to suit various groups of pupils over this wide spread of ability; and thirdly, that while 75-80% will leave at age 16 years, the remainder will continue at that school through a fifth and sixth year. All the pupils, therefore, from that particular area will have known only one secondary school and one section of the social community, which might be a cross-section of the whole — and might not.

In my view, ideally this form of organisation requires a large school for optimum results. If it is to be viable, if it is to pay due regard to the needs and abilities of pupils dispersed over

such a wide range of ability and environment, yet be organised into groups of pupils sufficiently large to justify the deployment of scarce teaching resources, it must be a large school.

Unlike the situation of my younger days when Science was Science, it is now Physics, Chemistry and Biology; Engineering, Commerce have crept into the curriculum as S.C.E. subjects. While formerly only French and German were offered in most schools, we now wish to offer our best pupils Russian, Italian and Spanish as choices. One could amplify this line of argument, but what it means in effect is that in the 4th and 5th years of secondary school, if a reasonably wide variety of choice of subjects is to be provided for S.C.E. groups without extravagance in staffing, Class SV must be of the order of 75 pupils and probably larger.

This in its turn means, at a time when the leaving age is 16 years, a total roll of at least 1,350, and in my view for the optimum situation it should be even greater.

It will also be obvious that if such a school is to afford the same opportunity to all children regardless of social background, it must have a catchment area which represents a true cross-section of the population.

I am quite sure that all-through comprehensive schools will work — and work well — after the philosophy of their creators if these two conditions can be met:

- (1) that the total number of secondary pupils in the post-1971 situation is in excess of 1,350;
- (2) that the school population is a true cross-section of the community, socially, environmentally, and intellectually.

Here, following the pragmatic approach shown by the Scots in 1918, let me emphasise that in the areas of smaller population the all-through must be the answer, and indeed there is really no debate in this sector.' In such areas, and I was educated in one, the school population

is a true cross-section of the social strata, and while it is true that the number of pupils rarely approaches my figure of 1,350, this means merely that a limitation necessarily must be accepted on pupils' choice, and also that in some schools techniques such as private study, supervised or otherwise, must be developed for education in certain less popular subjects.

Larger Urban Areas.

But if we look at the larger urban areas, where in many cases NEW schools exist, built in a senior secondary/junior secondary age to accommodate usually 600-900 pupils, new schools within a stone's throw of each other, and where therefore some measure of choice can be exercised, is a system of all-through schools, each for about 800 pupils, the best choice? Can we not achieve the same ends by a different pattern?

My criticisms of attempts to create all-through comprehensive schools in the urban area would be these:-

(1) In Renfrewshire, to take my own County as an example, I have but 8 Physics teachers and 12 Mathematics teachers qualified with Hons. 1 or II. These cannot be distributed throughout a system which would require about 24 all-through comprehensive schools. Yet it seems to me that every potential nuclear physicist has a reasonable right to access to one of these teachers in at least Classes V and VI, and this obviously cannot be done unless these able pupils are aggregated with the few teachers available. In fact we haven't the teaching resources to go in for a complete system of all-through comprehensive with justice to all pupils.

(2) Nor can I offer a wide variety of choice of subjects to fifth forms, each of which would not be larger than 50 pupils in these many all-through comprehensives without accepting the limitations, either of choice or techniques, necessarily to be accepted by the small school in the rural area. There are just not enough teachers to justify small, uneconomical grouping of pupils.

(3) Nor can I deliberately abandon half of

these new schools and build accordingly at the others so as to double their size — which is the other alternative. This would be so ridiculous that illustration of my point is unnecessary.

Furthermore, if the all-through comprehensive is intended — as many social reformers quite specifically would make its main purpose — to promote social mixing, it will certainly not do so in the large urban areas. There are sectors in my own County where the catchment group of primary schools established in an underprivileged area of that sector would produce perhaps but 20 pupils of what used to be called senior secondary calibre out of an annual intake of 250; within the same town another area will produce 90. Can two such comprehensive schools in the same town be regarded as equal in status or anything else? Can they give equal opportunity to like pupils?

Socially, also, like has drawn to like, and the West-End comprehensive in its environmental background will be quite different from that of the East. Is the able child in the East-End not to be allowed to mix intellectually with his West-End fellow? This was never the way with Scotland and its basic philosophy about movement from group to group based not on wealth, or birth, but on intellectual endowment

Basically, therefore, I believe that the all-through comprehensive is a good educational unit, provided — and only provided that the circumstances of its conception are correct. They must be large, ideally; they must have a true cross-section of the population preferably they should be purpose-built.

These conditions can apply, with limitations, to rural Scotland. They can apply in new towns being designed from scratch; they can apply in places like Coventry where they were scheduled from the start as part of their redevelopment programme. They cannot be applied overnight in urban Scotland and especially at a time which is scarce in highly skilled teaching resources.

B. Two-Tier System.

This is also a system based on comprehensive

lines. It also meets the criteria I established earlier —

- (a) that the need for transfer tests is removed and the primary school freed of this incubus;
- (b) no division of pupils into different schools at age 12;
- (c) allows time for development and recognition of special talents before final decisions are taken about courses at the end of SII;
- (d) allows more freedom of choice to parents;
- (e) allows intellectual mixing for all children of similar ability regardless of social background.

This system recognised that the rigid division of pupils into two nations at the age of 12 years is not only socially wrong — it can be unjust to the individual. It postulates, therefore, as does the all-through organisation, that all pupils from neighbourhood primary schools should initially attend the same secondary school and therein be provided with education in groups and classes according to their ability and aptitude. Under one roof children would be carefully nurtured and guided until, by the age of 14 years, the emerging abilities of pupils and their educational needs have been fully recognised.

At this point, and in full consultation with parents, a group of pupils from each of several of these junior high schools would transfer and become jointly the first year of a senior high school organisation. They would constitute probably not more than 25% of their age group and would have the desire — and probably the ability — to proceed to group of Higher Grade passes in Class V.

At present, in a senior secondary/junior secondary system which sends about 40% of an age group to the senior secondary organisation, both the double and the single cream are skimmed from the milk, and as a result the junior secondary schools tends to be a depressed institution. This arrangement of junior and senior high schools ensures that the whole

bottle is kept together for at least two years, and even then, LEAVES the milk AND the single cream in the junior high school. Such a school, therefore, at no point in its four-year course, can be compared with the junior secondary.

There would be further opportunity for transfer at the end of class SIV given to those pupils who, having gained a broadly based variety of 'O' Grade certificates, wished to continue their day school education further with a view to presentation for Highers in Class VI. And, after all, this is the group of pupils which in any system takes all 6 years before achieving such a group.

In this way it is considered that the ends of a comprehensive system can be attained. In detail —

(i) It is possible **within existing buildings** to have a comprehensive system with school rolls no greater than 700-900.

(ii) It is possible to have a senior high school of reasonable size, yet have large fifth and and sixth years.

(iii) It is possible to make maximum use of scarce teaching resources.

(iv) It offers the greatest opportunity for able children to come together and to study together, no matter the geographical location of their homes in an urban complex.

(v) It gives time within the junior high school for clarification of needs and abilities.

(vi) It allows parental choice, and this when choice is not only necessary but possible, i.e. when the pupil is 14 years of age.

It does seem to me that the organisational problems in an already developed area of large population, where buildings exist of limited size and usually on postage stamp sites, such that extension is either impossible or highly expensive, point conclusively to this or a similar system rather than to the 'all-through'. There are also those — and I trust that some

are to be found in the W.E.F. — who could adduce good educational grounds for choosing such a system where choice is possible

Sometimes one wonders what place the single cream and the skimmed milk will have in the social, recreational and administrative life of the all-through comprehensive school among so many who are better endowed in all respects. What opportunities will they have to show initiative and generally to learn the business of living as distinct from that of learning?

Perhaps the working of this system can be illustrated by our experience in one area of Renfrewshire where the two-tier system has now entered its third year of life.

Two junior high schools, respective populations about 650 inhabitants, feed one senior high school having a school population of presently about 730 pupils.

At the end of the second year, this past summer all parents were given guidance by the Headteacher of the junior high schools and at the same time advised that the parents' choice would be absolute. The opportunity to seek transfer to the senior high school would be theirs, but upon their head would also be complete responsibility if their choice conflicted with honestly given, professional advice from the Headteacher. Only two parents insisted, in an area which is predominately professional and which might in a nice way be considered senior secondary conscious.

The senior high school, I repeat, **with a total population of 730 pupils**, presented no fewer than 263 for 'O' Grade English, and 224 for Higher. (I cannot produce figures for the junior high schools. Their first 'O' Grade presentations will be at the end of the current session).

In Mathematics 206 sat 'O' Grade, and 118 'H'. In Chemistry 119 pupils obtained passes, and in Physics 135. Biology also had its 33 passes. The same school had 100 pupils presented for 'O' Grade Commerce and 18 at the Higher Grade.

The range of subjects for which pupils were presented is as follows:- English, History Modern Studies, Geography, Mathematics, Arithmetic, Additional Geometry, Elementary Analysis, French, German, Spanish, Russian, Latin, Greek, Chemistry, Physics, Biology, Commerce, Art, Music, Homecraft, Technical Subjects, Engineering.

Such an extraordinary range of choice, yet with economic groups of pupils, within a total school roll of less than 900, can only be provided within a senior high school organisation. Since I feel strongly that our most able pupils thrive on such a range of choice and that whenever possible it is our duty to offer it, I most certainly incline to this system.

I repeat that in the rural situation it is not possible in view of numbers to exercise choice in this matter of comprehensive education, nor do I seek to suggest that anything less than a fine education is being provided. But, as a former pupil myself of such a school, I sincerely consider that where conditions do exist for choice of organisation, then we should opt for what we regard as the superior and not adopt a doctrinaire approach. I remember only too well going to University to study Mathematics to find that all the work, even including elementary calculus was new to me, while those from the city selective schools had in fact covered all the work of the first year and indeed part of the second.

The two-tier system looks after the complete needs of all pupils. Equally will the all-through, but only if it is large. In urban built-up areas it is not usually possible to create large comprehensives. Therefore for this, and other reasons, I personally incline towards the two-tier system.

C. Middle Schools.

There are those who favour yet another form of comprehensive education. Effectively this is a three-tier organisation which sometimes seems to me to have a horse called VIRTUE out of NECESSITY.

The necessity lies in the doctrinaire demand that at no time must children of different abilities not be in the same school, set against the limitations of existing buildings of finite size. The size of the buildings precludes a viable all-through comprehensive organisation.

Therefore what you do is to chop off the first two years of such an organisation, leaving the rump, i.e. Class 3-6 as in the senior high school. The population of such a school will, of course, be different in cross-section from that of the senior high school.

The bottom tier is the primary school from P1-P5, the Middle School a new form of organisation comprising the present P6 and P7 together with a comprehensive class SI and SII.

Those who favour this system argue that it is possible when often all-through secondary schools are not; that educationally there are now good reasons for educating together the groups who would form the Middle School in that it would enable easy transition from what has until now been regarded as the work of the primary school to that of the secondary; Lines are being blurred and the more we can blur them by such transitional devices the better for education; Mathematics, French, Science and other subjects traditionally the field of the secondary school are now being taught in the primary school, and gradually the sharp divisions are being erased. The Middle School will hasten this desirable process. The pupil in the first or second year secondary has much more in common with boys and girls in the last two years of the primary school than with the older adolescents of the fourth, fifth and sixth years of the secondary.

This is an interesting proposal. It attempts to come to terms with the problems of providing an all-through comprehensive system by a technique similar organisationally to the two-tier system described earlier, yet different in educational conception. No doubt the debate at this Conference will give some time to this proposed system. No experience is yet available to quote, and there will be obvious technical

difficulties in decisions about precisely what physical facilities should be provided in these Middle Schools, what kind of teachers we require, and how they should be trained. Edinburgh and Stirling will be experimenting on these lines in the near future.

D. Sixth Form Colleges.

This is a form of organisation which is finding favour in many English Authorities. For it is now being increasingly recognised that, while we must depart from the rigid selective system, yet all-through comprehensives are not necessarily the universal answer; and indeed that there is no universal answer.

Different areas have different problems requiring different forms of solution. The problem universally in England, however, is basically this, 'While the Minister of Education insists that the entire spectrum of ability should go through school together, how do you within existing buildings, limited each in their accommodation, provide scope for good sixth form work?'

The Sixth Form College answer is as follows: Educate all in schools which are all-through comprehensive up to the leaving age — 16 years. Thereafter many will leave. The rest from several such schools will come together into a Sixth Form College, there to pursue their studies at post 'O' level and up to Advanced.

Personally, I like this solution — for England. There the sixth form is a two and sometimes a three year period, and to transfer into a new environment, to new teachers and more advanced study is perfectly possible — and even desirable — given no examinations until the end of at least a two year period.

But in Scotland, where 'O' grades are taken at the end of Class IV and 'H' in Class V, a transfer at the end of Class IV would involve an external examination on the Higher Grade within effectively a few months of transfer. This would not be fair. Furthermore, in England, the fact that this College would have its pupils

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Editorial Notes

The Editorial Board discussed at their last meeting the possibility of collecting articles on aspects of creative education and creativity in individuals. It is often the case that while we are inviting contributions on a subject, unexpected windfalls arrive. Such a one was the article in our last issue by Dr Margaret Wason on 'Creativity in Schools'. The emphasis on the need to ask the right questions as well as giving the right answers is one that has received too little attention. 'What about problem finding'?

This month we are fortunate in being allowed to print 'Towards a Creative Education' based on a memorable lecture by Professor Ben Morris. The lecture was a tribute to Sir Herbert Read. Of the many tasks that lie before us Ben Morris lists 'developing and preserving our openness towards the world, of learning to tolerate and use conflict, of accepting ourselves and children as we are, of letting the spirit blow where it listeth, and of seeking to create the basic trust which must permeate all that we do'.

Another offering came through Dr Sam Everett in the article which follows Ben Morris', an American appreciation of Nathan Isaacs by Lillian Weber. Here is a signpost as to how we may achieve a creative approach to education and to many tasks that lie before us. Of this great teacher she writes, 'There was no intrusiveness in his comment. He assumed the way of conversation was to share thinking, and so he simply shared his thought and thinking — step by step.' I think that Nathan Isaacs would have applauded the shift in emphasis in the article from Seonaid Robertson, 'A Serious Proposal for the Setting Up of Non-Schools'. Important is the suggestion that to educate we need to 'establish them as human beings whose most precious possession is a measure of choice.' Those of us who work in further education have long realised the value of this voluntary principle.

We make no apology for the notebook form of the Pitlochry report. Notes are more use than perorations in an age of change.

Towards a Creative Education

Professor Ben Morris

From a lecture given at Goldsmith's College, London as part of a Tribute to Sir Herbert Read.

'I am no artist in any of the recognised fields of artistic endeavour; I am not a teacher of art; I am no aesthete; I am not a collector of art objects; I am neither an historian nor a philosopher of art. I have to confess however that secretly I have spent quite a lot of time trying to discover what other men see in things which at first sight I have thought either abominable, or trivial, or absurd, and I have to report that quite often I have been at least moderately successful. If my aesthetic sensibilities have increased over the years, this is largely due to the influence of a number of people with whom I have worked, some of whom are here today, but most clearly perhaps to the influence of the man we are gathered today to honour.

I think that for many educators Sir Herbert Read, through his writings has been an immensely liberating influence. My own early education was almost entirely innocent of any activity that could be called artistic. Occasionally there was something called 'singing' but here my absence was much preferred to my presence. I did 'drawing' but I was hopeless at it. My representation of bottles, oranges, and human figures, had little resemblance to the actual objects before me. Even today I don't believe that because of this they would have qualified me to be regarded in certain circles as a great artist in the making! Yet somewhere in the files of the Scottish Education Department, if anyone ever bothered to look, there would be found a record of the fact that I once obtained a pass in drawing at training college. This was a miracle. I did this course as an extra, after I had qualified as a teacher, because I found that I had not the slightest idea of what to do with children during the timetable period so marked. My college teacher was something of a genius. He must have been. Perhaps the only plausible reason for my passing was the fact that no one who had diligently attended ever failed. Nevertheless, something had happened to me. My complete conviction of my utter incapacity in this field had received a jolt. The idea took root that

somewhere within me was the tiny germ of something that had never had a chance to flower.

Those of us whose experience was in any way similar to mine must feel when we look at schools today, particularly at infant and primary schools, that we were cheated of a large part of our human inheritance. How different, how much better things are now, and how clear it is that among those responsible for this change, no one has been a more powerful influence than Sir Herbert Read. Yet we have still far to go.

My theme is 'towards a creative education'. What do we mean by creative education? What would it be like if we had one? Is such a thing possible? We often use the word creative and sometimes we say we use it about education for lack of a better word. We are apologetic. But can there be a better word? Our apologies sound like a defensive dodge. Don't we fight shy of the term 'creative' because we are deeply afraid and suspicious of what it means? Nowadays, of course, you may say that 'creativity' is all the rage, especially among psychologists. Yet note the great effort put into attempts to measure it and to predict its development, compared with the efforts directed to attempting to discover the conditions which nourish it. Measurement in education often seems to be to some extent a way of wrapping up abilities and labelling them, of making sure that they can be pinned down, and rendered harmless perhaps, harmless because predictable, and therefore to some extent controllable. Now I am sure that this is not necessarily the basic aim of measurement and assessment in education, but it does lend itself very easily to this misuse. What I am objecting to here, of course, is the idea that creative powers in any worthwhile degree are the possession of only some children, who therefore must be spotted and specially encouraged. This will not do. We must take as our point of departure, the belief that all children are naturally creative, and that if we do not nourish the creativity of all, we explicitly condemn some to a less than human life; implicitly we may go far to condemn all to a failure to perceive the creative spark in their fellow men.

1. WHAT IS CREATIVE EDUCATION?

What do we mean by a creative education? The

shortest and most satisfactory answer is to point to examples and say, 'There it is!' Nowadays we can point to many examples. We might go back quite a long way. In art for example we might begin with Cizek in Vienna. Then we have Sir Herbert's famous book which is teeming with illustrations.¹ We have also the wonderful examples from accounts of children's work by our chairman, Miss Seonaid Robertson, in her book 'Rose Garden and Labyrinth'.² Nowadays we are surely all convinced of this kind of achievement.

In literature and particularly in poetry we have the work inspired by Miss Marjorie Houd beginning with the 'Education of the Poetic Spirit'³ and carried on with Gladys Cooper in 'Coming into Their Own'⁴. In music we could find many examples, but I have particularly in mind some primary schools in the West Riding inspired by the vision of Sir Alexander Clegg. These, of course, are all examples from the arts in the broadest sense, and it is right that they should come first, for it is in the arts that this work began. Creative work is however now going on in many of our infant and junior schools, covering the whole range of the curriculum. Experiment and discovery by children lies at the heart of modern thought about education. The scientific activities of looking, observing, finding out, asking questions, comparing, naming and classifying, go on without that fearsome abstraction 'science' to deter them. The same is true in the social studies, in the exploration of our human world.

Mathematical understanding too is beginning to grow and blossom in some of our junior schools where it is not stunted by an enormous, irrelevant, and wholly premature burden of calculation. It may well be that one of the most fruitful matrices in which the mathematical mind can have time and nourishment to grow is one in which arts and crafts play a prominent part. I feel that Sir Herbert would probably support that idea.

Again there is physical education, with its emphasis on free and natural movement, on rhythm, and on expressive dance, a development closely allied to dramatic art in which we have again discovered the natural powers of children. In foreign languages there is a strong movement for the only natural way in which to begin to learn a language, by speaking it, and this movement is spreading into the primary schools.

What of secondary education? Creative work is spreading upwards, slowly perhaps, but it is, and some of our secondary modern schools have much to show. There is great hope here too in the development of special courses for secondary teachers arising from the Newsom report. There is one of them in this college which lays stress on creative work for teachers themselves, particularly in the arts. Such work with teachers is surely one of the foci of educational development. Lastly, the idea that creative learning is the best kind of learning is spreading to grammar schools and grammar forms of comprehensive schools. As witness of this we have the new developments initiated by the Nuffield Foundation and by the Schools Councils in many parts of the country in mathematics, science, and modern languages with other subjects to follow. In all these ways in our national system we are at last reaping the reward of years of effort by pioneers, many of whom worked in independent progressive schools.

An interesting question arises at this point. Has programmed learning, one of the newest 'with it' things, something creative to contribute? Programmed learning, like every technique, is a double-edged device. It can, I am sure, be used for creative ends, but it could lend itself with disastrous ease to exploitation in the service of mere mechanical efficiency, defined as mastery of what adults think children should know and be able to do. So long as it is seen as only one tool amongst others, and its sphere of usefulness understood, we need not fear it but welcome it.

I think if we are honest we will admit that we can recognise creative education at once when we see it, but can we define it? To try to define it too closely might be a dis-service, but I think we can say this about it. Creative education is concerned with the joyful discovery by children of their human powers of construction and expression, of imagination and reason, freely exercised and uncoerced by neurotic adult pressures for premature results which can be defined beforehand. It is concerned with personal development, with the discovery by every child of what he has it within him to become. It is thus concerned with being and becoming, with the right to enjoy every stage of our development for, and in itself, as well as a preparation for further

stages. This is of course an idea whose currency to-day owes much to Rousseau's initial advocacy of it.

This leads to the next question. What is the basis of our belief in this kind of education? As we have seen and despite the sceptics, this kind of education works when conditions are right for it. But has it any firmer basis in ideas? Can we give it any rationale? I think so. The central notion is that children under certain conditions of relationship with adults and with each other, and with example and encouragement will create for themselves the very substance of civilisation and in the process recreate and revitalise the civilisation they inherit. The basic belief is that it is *natural* for children to shape, to mould, to draw, to dance and sing. These activities do not have to be imposed upon them. It is natural for them to explore the external world in both its human and non-human manifestations. It is natural for them to explore human thought and achievement. It is natural for them to experiment with and make discoveries in human relationships, which lead them to moral and social values. We believe that all this is natural, but that it only happens given certain conditions.

In making such statements the word 'natural' appears again and again. Some educators, their wits having been sharpened by a little analytic philosophy, tell us that this is an almost empty word, or that alternatively it means too much, for it means all that human beings are capable of. They will point out that this includes the capacity for hatred, mutual exploitation, destruction, distortion of the truth, the creation of ugliness, pain and suffering. All this is, of course, true. Who would be likely to deny it today? This is one of the ways in which the word 'natural' can be used, but it is not what is meant by it in this context.

In the context of creative education, 'natural' means in line with developments which do not, in the long run, lead to destructiveness, and mal-adaptation, to frustration and neurosis, to the stultifying of powers and the withering of promise. What is natural to man in this sense are the achievements which promote well-being in persons, in communities and in the human species as a whole. It is of course a value-laden

concept, but one in which what is matter of fact and what is matter of value are subtly inter-linked. We will, I am quite sure, discover that there are long term developmental and evolutionary criteria of what is natural to man in terms of increased awareness and constructiveness, and of the capacity for love and co-operation on which his very continued existence depends. In creative education our position is simply this. Man can improve his lot, he can go on from strength to strength in constructive achievement and happiness, or he can degenerate stultify and ultimately destroy himself. Which of these paths would you say is natural? The first one is natural, only if we want to make it ours. Our nature is not wholly given; in an important sense we create it as we go along 'In my beginning is my end', said Eliot at the start of 'East Coker', but he finished by saying 'In my end is my beginning'. In other words our natures are in an important sense defined by what we conceive our ends to be, and by what we are prepared to make an effort to achieve.

What characterises the kind of learning on which creative education must be based? Briefly, I would say that it is learning mediated by relationships between young and old, which are founded on trust, respect and love, and a belief that all children can partake in the adventure of creation. It is characterised by personal expression, personal experience, and personal discovery. It is informed by purpose and activity which is meaningful to the learner. To begin with it always takes the shape of participation in projects and not in the learning of subjects. Have we forgotten what subjects are? They are human achievements, human creations, and to approach them effectively children have to discover how they are created, through some experience of acts of creation, and not merely by coming to learn the results of other people's creative work. In a word this kind of learning is productive rather than reproductive, and ideally it leads to vocations on the basis of intrinsic interests. This last is another point which Sir Herbert has often made.

I wish finally to characterise creative learning in this way. It is the kind of learning in which the next step must in an important sense, and not in the programmed learning sense, always be essentially indeterminate from the teacher's point

of view, indeterminate because it is the child who must make it. What the teacher does is to accept what the child does, while trying to enlarge the background out of which he does it, and to enhance the skills which he uses to do it.

What stands in the way of a wider establishment of creative education? Basically our difficulties seem to be these. Many children come to us malformed, their natures distorted by early experience in home and (we are prone to think) in other people's schools. Many of us have suffered the same fate in our childhood, in home and school, and cannot liberate ourselves easily to educate creatively. We are faced all the time by public demands for premature results, for what I call pseudo achievements. Above all there is the demand that education should primarily provide the way to enhance social status and a materially safe way of life. Now these are very formidable difficulties. They go to the heart of contemporary society. None of us is in any position to sneer at or feel superior about them, merely because we may have been relatively lucky ourselves. We have to learn to face these difficulties, to try to understand them and to discover how they may be overcome. There can of course be no panaceas, no easy solutions. All I can do here is to suggest some of the directions in which we should turn and some of the tasks we shall have to undertake. Here are some of the leading questions we have to ask ourselves. What are the guiding notions we require in order to develop our understanding of creative work, its preconditions, the means to be employed in facilitating it, and the ends towards which it is directed? What is essentially required of teachers who would educate creatively, and lastly what kind of image of man do we require to sustain us in our task?

2. WHAT ARE THE PRECONDITIONS OF CREATIVITY?

First of all, what can we say about the necessary preconditions for creativity? We could list all sorts of things, of course, and psychologists and sociologists will go on listing them, but I want to put forward just one single idea. The major precondition is the preservation of man's natural openness towards the world. What do we mean by this? We all know roughly what we mean when we say that some people are more open than others, to experience, and to other people, just as others

are more shut in and withdrawn. What is hinted at in this popular thinking? We see openness at its best in children, and in artists, and in those who are artists in the world of science or scholarship. These display for us an acceptance of the world in all its glorious variety and the capacity to seize upon individual things and perceive them with freshness, a sustained naturalness, fullness and simplicity. I am referring here, among other things to what is often called the innocent eye. This is the title which Sir Herbert used for one of his books and is of course something which he has pre-eminently preserved in himself.

John Shaw Nielson, an Australian poet, in his poem 'The Orange Tree' put it like this:

'The young girl stood beside me. I
Saw not what her young eyes could see
A light she said, not of the sky,
Lives somewhere in the orange tree.'

Ernest Schachtel, an American psychoanalyst who has been radically revising some classical Freudian conceptions, has this to say of the adult in his very important book 'Metamorphosis'.⁵ 'Only the adult who is able to be completely absorbed again and again, often for many hours and days, in an object that arouses his interest, will be the one who enlarges his and sometimes men's scope of perception and experience. A painter may spend many days, weeks or months or even years in looking at the same mountain, as Cezanne did, or at blades of grass, or bamboo leaves, or branches of a tree, as many of the Chinese or Japanese masters did, without tiring of it, and without ceasing to discover something new in it. The same is true of the poet's or the writer's devoted love for his object, of the naturalist's perception of the plant or animal with which he has to live for long periods of time in order to acquire that intimate knowledge from which eventually new meaning and understanding will be born. This applies to all men who want to learn to know something or somebody truly and deeply.'

How can this quality, this precondition of creative work be preserved throughout childhood and into adulthood? What are the influences which cause its disappearance in so many of us? Basically, of course, we humans require to protect ourselves against the blinding light of reality.

In our perceptual acts we deploy selective devices, and we develop quite natural and proper defences to limit our vision and other senses. We might here recall Eliot in 'Burnt Norton':

'And the pool was filled with water out of sunlight,
And the lotos rose, quietly, quietly,
The surface glittered out of heart of light,
And they were behind us, reflected in the pool.
Then a cloud passed, and the pool was empty,
Go, said the bird, for the leaves were full of
children,
Hidden excitedly, containing laughter.
Go, go, go said the bird; human kind
Cannot bear very much reality.'

Or we may say simply and equally symbolically,
'No man can look upon the face of God
and live.'

But our concern here is a very much more limited one. It is symptomatic of the human condition that many of our powers have to develop out of others, and may do so at their expense. Conception grows out of perception, and the shadow cast by thought on man's world is familiar to the psychologists in the truth that successful concept formation, both facilitates and inhibits perception. As rational thought grows, we tend to lose our innocent eye. But need we? The artists are there to give the lie to this. Schachtel, whom I have already quoted, would agree. Speaking of the child's early acquaintance with the objects of his world, he speaks of how their significance is enhanced as the child apprehends their meaning in his culture. But he says, 'On the other hand they (these meanings) also increasingly supplant the child's original approach to the objects and especially in our time entail the danger of closing his openness to the world and reducing all experience to the perception of such preformed clichés as make up the world of reality as seen by his family, peer group and the society in which he grows up.' Primary perception, he says, tends to stagnate and to atrophy. He goes on, 'In our time this stagnation takes the form of an alienation of man from the objects and from his own sensory capacities. The danger of this alienation is that man's dulled senses may no longer encounter the objects themselves, but only what he expects and already knows about, the labels formed by his society. The closed

world of this perspective ceases to hold any wonder, everything has its label, and if one does not know it, the experts will tell him. (loc. cit.).'

Some psycho-analysts then tend to see the dulling of our perceptions as due to the over-development of our natural defences. An over-development which seeks to limit and relieve the pain of enduring interpersonal tensions and inner strivings. The remedy they suggest is that somehow we must learn to decrease the severity of the often unnecessary conflicts which face children, and, even more important, help them to tolerate and live with the inner stresses that are quite inescapable in the development of modern man. This then, we may suggest, is the means required to maintain our natural creativity. A tolerance of conflict and the use of conflict to create a new synthesis, a new wholeness in which the 'conscious and the depth minds co-operate', as Marion Milner has put it. This is not at all to suggest that art creations are just symptoms of conflict, or that the meaning of a work of art is to be found in the unconscious conflicts of the artist. (That idea is completely outmoded, particularly among psycho-analysts.) What is suggested is that the creative person is able to make constructive use of his inner stresses — these need not result in conscious conflict — as means to create something new and valuable for himself and the world. What is created has usually a symbolic quality, but again the meaning of the symbol is not simply that it mirrors unconscious conflicts. It does this, inevitably, but only incidentally. The larger meaning of the symbol is that it proclaims a new truth about our perception of the world, and embodies truth which is a work of art, because it has attained what Susanne Langer has called 'significant form'.⁶

Following up a remark of Sir Herbert Read's, about art as the finding of significant symbols, Marion Milner in her essay 'Psychoanalysis and Art'⁷ says this: 'It is a fact that more and more analysts are now becoming concerned with the way in which symbols are created. Analysts find that in their most deeply disturbed patients, the process of symbol formation has been interfered with or perhaps never properly established.' The moral for education is I think painfully clear. We have practically everything still to

learn about understanding the stresses and conflicts of childhood in the sense of trying to help children to tolerate them and use them, not defensively to limit and shut out reality, but constructively to reveal reality through creation and discovery. If we have to learn how to do this with children, have we not first in fact to learn how to do it to some extent with ourselves, and this is likely to be a promethian task. A great deal of the time, however, we are apt to deny that there is any such task. Our defences against inner reality in particular are often so good that for long spells we exist by accepting complacently the deadening routine of our formal educational procedures.

What are the aims of creative activity? I would suggest three. Our creative strivings are directed in the first place I think to the production of significant form in music, and the plastic arts, in literature and dance, in science and mathematics and in historical understanding. In the second place they are directed to the achievement of an objective sympathy with the world of things, with living creatures, and with our fellow men. It is in our creative moments that we see the world most clearly in all its astonishing variety, in its glory, and in its tragedy. Louis MacNeice put this beautifully in his poem 'Snow'.

'World is crazier and more of it than we think,
Incorrigibly plural. I peel and portion
A tangerine and spit the pips and feel
The drunkenness of things being various.'

Finally, our creative efforts are directed to the attainment of a wholeness which is the consummation of our relatedness to the world and to other human beings. To talk more about this would be to start on a very long story indeed. These ideas, the preservation of openness, the tolerance of stress, and the striving for significant form, for objective sympathy, and for wholeness, do express, I think, something of the essence of creative work.

3. WHAT IS REQUIRED OF THE CREATIVE EDUCATOR?

In my kind of job we are never tired of exhorting teachers and student teachers, to do this, and the next thing, to be this and to be that. Naturally they get tired of us and our exhortations, and

rightly so. We seem to be inexhaustible exhorters. Let me instead then put the question another way. If we are to educate creatively, is it not the case that we need more than anything else to have time and opportunity to refresh our own vision, to recover the pristine feeling of encountering new life in our contacts with children, our fellow men, and the achievements of men? Have we not to recapture and keep the feeling we may have on a sun-drenched May morning when we feel that we have stepped suddenly into the beginning of the world? We must allow time for such refreshment and actively seek it, but beyond this there are things upon which we must reflect, and work, and experiment a great deal more if we are going to increase our powers to educate creatively.

The first of these is our capacity to accept children and young people as they are. Sir Herbert and others have constantly pointed out that this must often mean accepting the poorest of poor work, because at the moment it is all that a child can do. Discrimination is needed of course, but to reject the work is often to reject the person. The idea of acceptance of people, not only children, as they are and not as we would wish them to be, is however a very profound one, and it is difficult to put into practice. It lies at the heart of Christian teaching about God's relation to man, which at least, whatever else it may mean, is a symbolic way of talking about the relation between man and man. It is clear that humanity has not progressed very far as yet in this direction. The difficulty is not far to seek. The rejection we mete out so much of the time to children and young people is a concealed way of rejecting something in ourselves that we do not wish to acknowledge, something based on fear or hate or envy. For example, the behaviour of some young people may openly express all that we have denied about ourselves. Consequently, we may not only condemn the behaviour (which we may be right to do) but reject the person also. The child indeed lives on in each of us as an unacknowledged part of ourselves, and this means that our capacity to create and destroy, to love and to hate, and to feel joy and pain at the child level is still there.

Absolute acceptance of all children, by all teachers, is a Utopian idea, and it is enough to

learn to increase our capacity for such acceptance. Failure to progress in this is failure to learn more fully how to accept ourselves as we are, with all our imperfections. It is a failure in self-knowledge in the deepest sense. Let us recall Freud's words about this: 'Only someone who can feel his way into the minds of children can be capable of educating them, and we grown up people cannot understand children because we can no longer understand our own childhood'. Coming from him, this was of course a challenge. Without some measure of understanding of the child within us we cannot begin to accept children and young people as they are, and without a measure of such acceptance, there is no real life, no partnership, no creativity.

The second thing seems to me to be a much greater willingness to let the spirit blow where it listeth. In her fascinating analysis of Blake's illustrations to the Book of Job, Marion Milner says this: 'There are moments when the spirit bloweth where it listeth (like Blake's God in the whirlwind). They cannot be induced either by teacher or child, but they can be allowed for, and if psycho-analytical experience is right, they are most likely to occur in a particular kind of setting, one in which there is not too great fear of a tyrannical authority, so that the spontaneous life is either denied, or expressed in defiant rebellion: nor yet too much licence, which would mean that the child is kept too busy with unshared responsibility for his own aggression to dare to give his imagination its head; in fact, in a setting in which it is safe sometimes to be absent minded, (loc. cit).'

The third thing we have to ponder is the nature of the relation in education between teachers and children. The teacher stands for authority. He simply cannot help this, and there is much self-deception about it among some even very brilliant educators. But the teacher also stands for love. Neither of these alone will do, as Marjorie Hourd points out. What is necessary is a special kind of partnership which aims at mutuality. Again Miss Hourd points out this cannot be a full mutuality because of the inherent inequality of teacher and child, but I would prefer to say that the necessary partnership is one which bears the stamp of a mutuality which transcends inequalities. For there is a

basic mutuality in the common purpose of education. It is perhaps Buber who puts the matter best when he emphasises the crucial role of trust. 'Trust in the world because this human being exists. That is the most inward achievement of the relation in education.'⁸ Thus many tasks lie before us, tasks of developing and preserving our openness towards the world, of learning to tolerate and use conflict, of accepting ourselves and children as we and they are, of letting the spirit blow where it listeth, and of seeking to create the basic trust which must permeate all that we do. These are immense and hard undertakings, yet inescapably they mark the way forward.

4. WHAT IMAGE OF MAN DOES CREATIVE EDUCATION REQUIRE?

I am going to be quite categorical here. We have to reject as inadequate the kind of image with which we are presented every day, in particular by some of the vociferous champions of the behavioural sciences, who glory in presenting man as *nothing but* a 'machine' or a homeostatic organism, and in fostering the notion that civilised achievements are *nothing but* the sublimation of animal and infantile drives. Such limited models of man maybe necessary for specific and limited purposes within scientific work itself, but they are quite inappropriate as the basis of an image of all that man is and may become. Moreover, the conceptual idiom in which Freud himself clothed many of his most pregnant and important insights has through unsophisticated interpreters unhappily contributed much to this kind of image and this kind of error. We must reject too the image of ourselves as merely producers and consumers, anxious only to maintain the material values of for example, a middle class way of life as it is known in our society in the west. Such images inevitably add their influence to all the already existing tendencies to de-humanise education.

Instead we must proclaim our faith in the primacy of the personal in human life. Nothing short of a personal image of man will do to sustain ourselves as persons, to enable us to live and move and have our being in and through relationships with other persons. To erect and proclaim a de-humanised image of man is already to promote our own actual de-humanisation. As I suggested earlier, our nature is not wholly

given; in part we create ourselves. Only an image of man as a person can sustain our efforts to become enjoyers of life, discoverers of meaning in the world, and creative educators.

In conclusion, it seems to me that we need above all to sustain within ourselves a sense of wonder and mystery, the sense of indeterminacy of life without end. Eliot puts this issue superbly in 'Family Reunion':

'Thus with most careful devotion
Thus with precise attention
To detail, interfering preparation
Of that which is already prepared
Men tighten the knot of confusion
Into perfect misunderstanding,
Reflecting a pocket-torch of observation
Upon each other's opacity
Neglecting all the admonitions
From the world around the corner
The wind's talk in the dry holly-tree
The inclination of the moon
The attraction of the dark passage
The paw under the door.'

Let us then embrace wonder, and let us embrace hope, the kind of hope for which Sir Herbert has always stood. Hope creates and children, normal children, are always full of hope. I have just come across a beautiful and inspiring book called 'In the Early World' by a creative teacher, Elwyn Richardson⁹. It is a record of yet one more of these conquests in the field of creative education, this time in a little village school in North Island, New Zealand. In his introduction, the author says: 'I now realise that what I have learned from my children and recorded here supports some well established educational beliefs. For what I myself learned during these years I have mainly my children to thank.' This is a lesson that Sir Herbert has been trying to teach us all his life.

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Nathan Isaacs—an American Appreciation

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It is almost two years (May 1966) since Nathan Isaac's death, but nothing has yet appeared in an American journal in appreciation of this English educational theorist. This omission is particularly surprising in that he wrote on growth of understanding in children, on children's questions, on what Piaget's work on children's development of number concepts reveals of how children learn — all matters of concern and preoccupation, to Americans. Isaacs was largely instrumental in encouraging English primary school teachers, particularly infant school teachers, to make use of Piaget's observations, joining these, in brilliant analysis, to the mainstream of English educational thought on child development.

Reprint after reprint of his pamphlets on these subjects appear in England and are sold to these teachers — approximately 9,000 copies yearly. His influence is acknowledged by the important Nuffield junior science program, a program which attempts to develop in the junior school, continuity with the more informal infant school methods. His testimony to the Plowden Committee¹ is given careful study as a significant discussion of educational perspectives. The serious study of Piaget² by English teachers is tribute to this influence, and the variety of number, weighing and measuring experiences one sees in so many infant schools testifies to the successful absorption of Piaget's observations into this school setting. But it is not only for the mathematical discussions the teachers read Isaacs. They read because his work gives underpinning and clarity to their further development of the infant school method.

In spite of our interest in all these questions,

only a few Americans know of this work which gives English teachers a coherent and bulwarking frame for such method. To fill this gap, to bring Isaacs' reasoning, his writing to American notice, I revive these words written directly after his death. The only American to attend his memorial service (June 13, 1966) at the Institute of Education, University of London, I wrote in tribute. After a year back in the United States I am more than ever convinced it is important for us to know what he had to say.

The stimulus to my thinking from his was **not** his remarks on Piaget, but what he brought to bear from our knowledge of how children learn to the development of a conception of the role of the teacher and the structure of the school. In developing this, it seemed to me he expressed with most depth the underlying rationale and theoretic base of 'informal education' as I had come to understand it in my 16 months observing English infant schools.

For it was on the evidence derived from observations of children learning that ways of education should be based, he argued — not on sentiment, not on kindheartedness. Were the ways of education consonant with this evidence? For Isaacs this is a proper question. Analyzing this evidence — from Piaget and from the prior evidence of Susan Isaacs — Nathan Isaacs brings it to bear as considerations that could change **fundamental** arrangements, not just a few surface mechanisms. From the analysis of the ways of child learning, the role of the teacher and school are constructed — not as choices but as necessities — with logic and inevitability.

The evidence he examines on how children learn is not gleaned only from experience with the middle class child in the Malting House school or from Piaget's children. He draws also from his study with others at the Froebel Foundation, of the experience of the English infant schools, from the evidence collected by D.E.M. Gardner and other educators, American and English, from experiences with slum children such as described by E. R. Boyce in **Play in the Infant School**. He collates these experiences and finds the thread common to **all** normal children, that 'without some motive drive towards active growth normality could not have been achieved at all.'

(3: p. 15.) This simple statement defines the drive to learning as inherent in the very nature of the learner. Thus, activity, curiosity are inherent propulsive forces towards learning, without which past learning could not have taken place, necessary for all further learning. The different degrees of this that are observed do not change the essential nature of it, its essentiality in **some** degree for **any** learning to take place. Therefore, even where those previously disadvantaged need 'some extra effort . . . to get the channels of living learning cleared again' (3: p. 15) such children would 'advance further in this way than they would be likely to do under conventional teaching.' (3: p. 15).

He says this is so because **all** of the evidence — Piaget and other observation — indicates that it 'is not sensory perception or anything else passively impressed on him (the child) from outside but his own action' (2: p. 5) that impels learning. 'Only the self-education pivoted on the child's own activities and active experiencing is psychologically real (2: p. 15) And so Isaacs talks of how **all** children learn — when they do, not discussing this quantitatively. He is dealing for a beginning and a foundation with the earliest assimilative, accommodative, integrative processes — nonverbal and associated with action and its repercussions. It is this that must be kept going and to which new sources of learning must be kept related.

He brings the evidence of Piaget to bear on the nonconceptual character of verbal use before a long succession of concrete experiential actions have occurred to give body to the concept covered by the word. He discusses the necessity in any **new** learning for this base to be renewed. Language does bring fresh resources for learning, but only if 'kept in living relation to concrete . . . experience.' (3: p. 20) 'Really new meanings can only be generated through new actual experiences.' (3: p. 10).

In this picture of how the child learns, the environment enters, not as supplemental enrichment, not as 'aids to teaching' (3: p. 17) but as the **material** of action, the material on which accommodation and therefore further reordering and rebuilding and stretching of the frame of reference happens. The environment can

be a 'helping or hindering feature.' (3: p. 19). The helping features of it can be fostered or past hindering features removed and the helping features refostered. 'Outward reality is as all-important for inward growth as the inward impetus in the child.' (2: p. 35) The child is 'in turn assimilating outward reality and accommodating to it.' (2: p. 35).

In this context, he considers play and imagination as essentially related to the mode of accommodation. They are a way of re-enactment, hypothesizing and working over of life that are part of this reordering of experience. Play and imagination may incorporate reworking of the social as well as the material reality.

For the child learns from an outer reality that is social as well as material. There are accommodations and reworkings and forward thrusts of learning forced by absorption of other points of view in discussion. This, too, is part of the necessity the child faces 'constantly to modify his action to comply with the outward course of things.' (4: p. 28) 'Adaption is . . . indissolubly interrelated with social development, as the child lives his way into the life of the family and community around him . . . Through the needs and demands of his later co-operation with his fellows . . . the child gradually comes to transcend his egocentrism and to master the three great lessons of reciprocity, relativity and objectivity.' (4: p. 28) This is a discussion of socialization that is incomparably richer than the usual limited discussion of this as an aspect of nursery school contribution. For Isaacs, **people** are a very complex part of the environment, part of the rich outer world, part of the 'outward reality,' which is as 'all-important for inward growth as the inward impetus in the child.' (2: p. 35) Thus socialization is part of the essential rebuilding and stretching of the frame of reference we call learning. How deceptively simple to say, 'He learns that there are other points of view.' (4: p. 28). Interaction of minds — child and child; teacher and child — is useful at all points.

The outer reality on which the child acts, which forms the material of his action is a whole. He describes the child, from the earliest period of his learning as constantly building and revising

and extending a frame of reference about the world that is a single comprehensive picture — a whole. The child develops a 'working logic' (3: p. 22) indicative of the 'wholeness' of his frame of reference, a functional logic demonstrated by the foresightedness of his actions, even though he has not yet the words for the connections and sequences these clearly predict. The early 'working logic' must of course continually overcome its limitations of too restricted frame of reference and is constantly reframed, building new 'wholes.'

Outer reality is a whole — and the child's frame of reference is a whole — but constantly being revised. This revision is essential to what we mean by the very process of learning, the process that results from the fact that 'actions' produce effects.' (7: p. 15) but not necessarily ones that are expected. Often there are discrepancies and these impel the accommodations that become necessary as the previous frame of reference falls short. Unexpected experiences, discrepancies, can be fostered, in this way helping learning. Isaacs has an interesting and provocative discussion bearing on what the teacher can do to foster usefully the 'role of anti-expected or unexpected experiences' (4: p. 42) the 'interfering deflecting or reversing factor previously unknown.' (5: p. 13) Isaacs is ever aware of the interaction of inner and outer, of the control and impulse to further accommodation from the 'world of fact.' (5: p. 7).

Obviously, the reinterpretations, necessary accommodations of discrepancies and distortions in the previous frame of reference can be most direct if the reordering is what the **child** finds to reorder — his own problems. He examines in active experiences the multiple aspects of reality and attempts to form a concept. In this complex process of absorption of experience what pieces has he **in fact** fitted into the formation of **what** concept? What piece of experience demands a reordering of the concept because there is a discrepancy demanding further work in experience? This can only be known for that child through discussions and pursuit with him of the discrepancies of **his own** experience.

In another sense, Nathan Isaacs speaks of this

formulation — the child's 'own questions,' his 'own purpose' as an application, from observation of the psychological development of the child, of Dewey's views on democracy in education. 'The integrity of a human person is one and indivisible and if we mean to respect it, the time to begin is when he first begins.' (1: p. 4). 'It follows . . . that he must do his own growing . . . We must understand . . . how dependent it is on the child's own positive assimilative and integrative activity; and how much it needs to be continuous and of one piece.' (1: p. 5) ' . . . he needs continual exercise in choice, and experience of its fruits and consequences to integrate with it.' (1: p. 6) In this way, he can even correct by finding out all he can **do** in being active, his very poor image of himself as weak, as helpless. A necessity for the child's future growth is that he **conceive** of himself as active agent, that he be allowed to **be** the active agent in his own learning and growth.

But what, in fact, is the usual concept of 'teaching?' Isaacs' analysis of 'teaching' as commonly understood, including even that done in the pleasantest fashion, was another landmark of my learning from him. How brilliantly and incontrovertably Isaacs draws the picture! I read his description of the previous learning of the small child — prior to school — and then what it is that happens when most of him is put in abeyance in **order** that he 'be taught.' I read his description of the limited, segmentalized nature of the child's learning — even at best — in the situation of 'being taught.' In this situation the previous frame of reference, functioning but without self-consciousness or the abstract words to describe itself is often forgotten or ignored. Thus it is often assumed that lack of the word means **no** knowledge and the long prior base in concrete experience that gives meaning to the word is forgotten, too. The step-by-step process of the earlier genetic learning (Piaget) we have all experienced is forgotten by the teacher and only the end, analytic and coherent is remembered. Even more serious, it is often forgotten that each such end is itself the result of concrete experiences and many structurings and restructurings of working logic. This 'forgetting,' then, results in segmentalization, presentation

of a subject in terms of its 'inner' abstract logic and apart from its cross-current of connections to other fields, apart from its origin in concrete experience without connection to the already existent functioning frame of reference, and without the child actively involved in this new extension and rebuilding of his frame. The already existent frame of reference is weakened, its 'wholeness' is threatened, its elasticity of accommodation in the living process of learning damaged. This analysis of what 'teaching' is, its effect even on those who seemed to 'successfully adapt themselves' (7: p. 19) is, I think, one of his real contributions. 'School teaching in the ordinary school setting systematically shuts out all the main means through which the child has previously achieved mental growth.' (7: p. 14). It is a shattering formulation but everything one has experienced underlines its undeniable truth.

From the uncovering of the path of child learning, from the unmasking of 'teaching,' Isaacs takes us bit by bit to the logic of what the school **can** offer and describes the 'optimum school' (3: p. 15) and then to what the teaching role can be. In this way he supports activity methods, informal education — not as 'nice' but because it most fully engages the **natural** learning drives of the child. Only with this evidence as support can activity methods be fully used with conviction and as inevitable. This is evidence taken from the child's learning **before** school life, his 'many levels of effective practical thinking' (3: p. 20) **before** the development of verbal or conceptual logic. The task of teaching is then 'to give children every possible help in going on with all their real learning processes.' (8: p. 90) 'Direct learning — always through exploration, experiment and the striving for fresh achievement — must in fact be steadily restimulated and aided to advance further and further until the help of planned teaching becomes its own next need and active demand.' (7: p. 21).

Soberly and quietly Nathan Isaacs demonstrated that Piaget's work 'not merely supports' (3: p. 7) such a method (activity) but 'decisively demands' (3: p. 8) this as 'the only one that makes psychological sense' (3: p. 8) and recognizes the 'long and complex prior history of intellectual

development.' (3: p. 6).

This analysis of how children learn leads Isaacs to the question, 'How far we might have to go if we were resolved to adapt our practice to our problem instead of our problem to our practice?' (1: p. 2). In his memorandum to the Plowden Committee (7) he develops the implications of the 'how far' to outline a possible testing ground for evidence on child learning, incorporated in a school which **would** adapt 'practice to problem' — a school that would 'help in real, living learning at least over the whole vital period of the foundation building primary years,' (3: p. 17) learning which, if so continued, would 'provide the broadest framework for the phase of systematic teaching to come.' (8: p. 90).

Isaacs asked a revolutionary question when he asked this question — 'How far?' but he armed us for the journey with the strength of his analysis of the evidence.

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Because I considered one of the privileges of my year in England that I heard Mr. Isaacs in a series of lectures on Piaget, read some of his work on this theme and finally met him, I wrote this tribute.

His clarity had been encouraging to my small search for clarity, his analytic probing of rational base for educational belief and method, and evidence that such can be. And so his loss was a threat to the possibilities for this search or so I felt it. I turned to reconstruction of my all too brief consideration of his ideas, grateful that I was fortunate enough to have found his work and heard him thinking before he died. It is with this reconstitution of his thought that I dealt with his death. His probing of possibilities continued to support my probing through the long subsequent period while I was writing on English informal education.

But the realities of the man also added to my frequent reconsiderations of the tight layers of his thought. I drew and absorbed from the memorial service, a gathering of friends, educators and students.

As each friend contributed his memories of facets of the man, for each friend different, I listened with a growing sense of wonder — that in a **memorial** service the feeling was of illumination, of 'addition.'

I had come with respect and a feeling of loss that the clear reasoning I had just begun to follow was gone. Reading and hearing the layer on layer of entire cogent presentation, no point superfluous or unnecessary for the logical connection and reference, I thought I knew Mr. Isaacs as scholar, as academic. And indeed, so it sounded in a tribute letter from Professor Jean Piaget read at the service. Even with the warmth in his recollections, of love, esteem and argument, the recollections were of work together, in translation of his writings and in discussion of the problems of the research at the Institute in Geneva.

An esteemed academic indeed, but how much richer and complex a picture grew from the reminiscences of Lord Robbins.³ Lord Robbin's described his meeting in 1916 with the young soldier agnostic, described the growth of friendship in the midst of mountain climbing, the search for wild flowers, endless discussions and arguments in which the implications of any position were relentlessly explored. For this was not the University-trained product but a free intelligence. Nothing could be more evocative than Lord Robbin's reminiscences, as fellow student of the dialogue developed between the student, Nathan Isaacs, and the lecturer in the psychology course who was later to become Susan Isaacs.

How close he seemed when Dorothy Gardner⁴ recalled incidents of Isaacs talking with children, always in realistic and respecting ways. Out of her memories, Miss Gardner showed us Nathan Isaacs, supporting Susan Isaacs in her development of the experiences of the Malting House School, persuading her to accept the responsibility of heading the new department of Child Development at the Institute of Education, University of London, the first center of Child Development research in England. It was clear in what Miss Gardner said of Isaac's work on the foundations for development of educational method, what a

towering conceptual support he was for those trying to base their teaching on the implications of such research. The constancy of his devotion to exploration of the deepest definitions of teaching, of learning, even in the midst of the many dimensions of his life, (he was, after all, a successful public administrator, a successful man of business) unfolded in the story of his work with his wife, Dr. E. Lawrence, at the Froebel Foundation. It unfolded in the story of his constant availability — with all his critical powers — to anyone working in this way. The reality of the man grew and grew. I had thought of him somewhat as a disembodied intellect. How much better to have discovered a **man** with this intellect.

In this way the tributes were a giving back to the audience of friends and educators of all the things, the different things that Isaacs meant to them. The Nathan Isaacs they remembered they gave to me and to everyone. It was a gift that could only come from them — a gift of enlargement and re-establishment in some measure of the support of his lost presence. It was in the search for this that I had written down, directly after I heard Dorothy Gardner announce his death, my own brief memories brief because a few weeks after our meeting he was ill and then I heard he had died.

I remember my first hearing him — his voice low, his words hard to catch. I began to strain forward that I might hear every word — suddenly aware this was a rare **mind** at work, examining very deeply questions vital to education. He spoke slowly, sharing every step of his reasoning, sharing the evidence, not trying to overbear or persuade in any other way. It was then I turned to journals to try to find every article. Every article again, though in exactly the same way as his speech, quiet, subdued, unassertive, was suddenly and unexpectedly stimulating to me. The deceptively simple and old theme that the ways of teaching must be related to the ways of learning began to seem quite new. I suddenly realized that at least in part I'd previously thought of any knowledge I had of how a child learns as **useful** in teaching, not as the **reason** for a way of teaching. I had thought of such ways of

learning as mechanisms to aid in making me more successful in my task of what I wanted to teach. I had not thought of such knowledge as the very source from which I'd derive and learn the ways of teaching.

When I met him at his house in the country it was as though we were resuming conversation rather than beginning it, as we talked of ideas in English education. He listened closely and with interest to my observations, commenting on the possible connections in a quiet, almost dry way — using no extra words but each time sharpening and defining more clearly the diffuse point. There was no intrusiveness in his comment. He assumed the way of conversation was to share thinking and so he simply shared his thought and thinking — step by step.

This, then, is the support Nathan Isaacs gave me to continue my search for meaning and rational base for educational method. I have disregarded for purposes of this paper, among much else, his analysis of Piaget's work on number — all crystal clear and of great service to teachers. I have concentrated on Mr. Isaac's analysis of the nature of child learning revealed by Piaget's work on number. It is this that I think I owe to Isaacs and so it is this that I have resummarized. I was helped to reason from the ways of the child learning, the non verbal base to learning, the whole unsegmentalized character of his learning, the essential interaction of the child with rich environment considered socially and imaginatively as well as in objects, the role of discussion in this, and from there to the necessary role of teacher and educational structure. Now, my own work on English informal education beginning to stir questions and discussions, I again submit my tribute.

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Before the New Maths can Begin

J. S. Stockwell

These observations relate to a group of emotionally disturbed children between the ages of 9+ and 10+ in a Day School for Maladjusted Children. They were all of at least average intelligence and varying degrees of attainment.

It seemed to me that with no set syllabus and an elastic timetable one would have an ideal situation for exploring the possibilities of "The New Maths". Once I had established a reasonably relaxed atmosphere and trusting relationships with the group then meaningful self-motivated learning situations could be set up and the world of mathematics would be ours.

In fact this did not happen, and it was sometime before I began to see where I had been going wrong, what, more precisely were the children's difficulties and very tentatively, at first, to set about helping them. If my experience seems naive I can only plead that I made the fairly common assumption that children who were able to count and to show pages of simple addition and subtraction were sufficiently versed in the field of operations to set about deducing

relationships from their own explorations.

Reversals were common after 9. This should have warned me but I gleefully set about eradicating reversals with a series of exercises based on a numberstrip and number squares without questioning the basic concept of place-notation. We found that we could do simple sums and get the right answer now, not only by rule-of-thumb but by counting on the number strip. This safe activity proved relaxing and gratifying in the number of ticks it produced, but that was all. We were not progressing beyond this stage. Attempts to set up exploratory situations met with withdrawal and irritation.

I started all over again, examining their ability to count and at last realised how mathematically illiterate these children were. Apart from two in the group the relationship between ordinal and cardinal numbers was so hazy that told to count out seven pebbles:-

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

and those seven pebbles pushed together in a pile the rest took an appreciable time to answer and two had to recount. They were not beyond the earliest stage of counting noticed in very young children where the activity seems pleasurable in itself but meaningless in so far as the number-word is unconnected with the group of objects counted. If I took a group of pebbles known to be 7 and asked them to add three more to the pile and to give the total all had to recount from the beginning. This was tried out on several occasions and in these specific instances the time lags could not have been due to suspicion of a hoax. It is noteworthy that the number-bonds were "known" on paper.

I then set about testing the group with the conservation tests suggested in Appendix 7 to Curriculum Bulletin No. 1 (H.M.S.O.) The results were negative.

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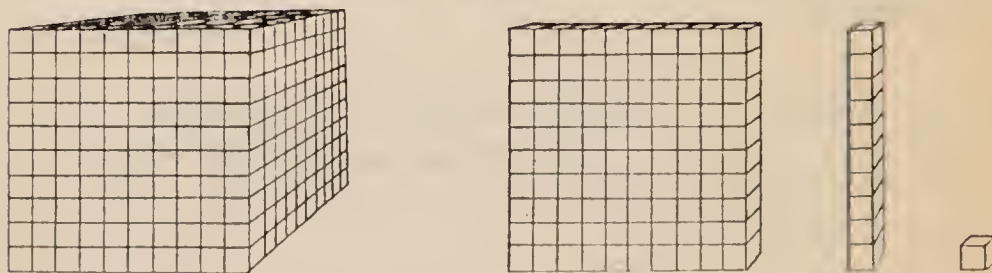
Piaget has made us familiar with the idea that the process of forming a mathematical concept takes much longer than formal methods of education have hitherto suspected and that a great deal of pre-school play seemingly unrelated to number concepts is unconsciously directing itself

towards that end. Now the children in the group had histories of emotional disturbance dating back to earliest infancy. The psychic mechanisms blocking the learning process and inhibiting the creative use of personal relationships had also affected infantile play. Here might well be a clue as to why the open-ended questions and opportunities for exploration produced irritation. They were anxiety producing situations and referred back to the frightening and unresolved universe of the disturbed child.

What seemed to be required was a sort of crash-course in infancy but this was to some extent inherent in therapeutic orientation of the school. In the immediate classroom situation where these very sensitive children tend to resent being asked to concentrate on anything they cannot describe as "proper school work", (a surprisingly strong idea for these children who have all failed so deplorably in "proper school"), I felt it necessary to be tactful in the introduction of what is essentially infant and nursery school experience. I had to compromise.

I worked backwards from the few sums they could do by rule-of-thumb using pebbles and bun trays for simple sharing and grouping processes and showed them that the answers tallied. (Pebbles of approx. acorn size are particularly useful; they don't roll, are cool and firm, irregular enough to avoid confusion with more structured apparatus later and visually interesting without being over-stimulating.) After this 'stone-age arithmetic' I introduced Dienes Blocks for addition and subtraction using only the units and longs and without showing them the process of re-grouping. (Normal children of their intelligence range would have cottoned on to re-grouping almost immediately.)

Mathematically Based Blocks. ('The Wood')



Now that confidence was established in the "wood" I gave out flats and blocks and let them play with no comment. At first they were at a loss. After all m.b.b.'s are not as interesting as Leggo. I

managed to avoid being too explicit and for about two weeks we were able to get in 5-10 minutes a day handling the wood. Undirected play was at minimum and to hold their interest I had to use structured games such as Dienes suggests in "Building Mathematics". During this period they became aware of the relationships between the blocks and counted in tens and hundreds but only occasionally substituted a long for ten units, or a flat for ten blocks. One boy with gross perceptual difficulties was moved to work out the total number of units represented by all the wood we possessed and he did it, as far as I could discover, by counting the units individually and then the longs and so on. His total was spoken as 'five thousand and six hundred and sixty eight'. It was his first concrete experience of a large number. With interest beginning to wane and demands for the "old" arithmetic I know gave them a more formal analysis of the 4-rules using the wood and recording as we did so. Place-notation and re-grouping now had a definite meaning if only by association.

A trust in numbers had been established.

This was not the only mathematically orientated work that was going on during this time. In general I found that any work I wanted to do meant going back to the most elementary experience involved.

Measuring? You can't measure if your sense of the conservation of length is lacking or if you have little experience of matching.

The properties of shapes? I found that if the group were asked to cut a 6" square diagonally in 4 and then were immediately asked to re-assemble the original square, they all experienced varying degrees of difficulty. No wonder an earlier attempt to explore the properties of congruent triangles produced the fragmented groupings illustrated.

Conservation of volume* Again meaningless. Measuring cups were used for water play at a most primitive level.

Now it may be said that I lacked the patience and trust to let these children work through play situations at their own pace, but by now my relationship with the group was such that they

were able to let me know verbally and symbolically that they wanted more explicit directions within the learning situation and that free-activity in the main was too over-stimulating for them to structure usefully. (It must also be remembered they had ample opportunities outside working sessions to play with all the materials we used.)

I have dwelt on the experience of number work with the mathematically based blocks because it exemplifies the learning problems of emotionally disturbed children. The material had to be carefully introduced and had to be seen as capable of organisation. In order to get immediate results (remember the anxiety-tolerance of these children is abnormally low) the undirected-play period was less than would be tolerated by normal children and the directed activities more specific than would be necessary.

It will be said that such direction invalidates the tenets of 'The New Maths': that a mathematical concept is built up by abstraction from a variety of situations in which the constancy of the relationship between variables is itself perceived and that this act of perception is in the nature of a creative act. And this is precisely the crux of the situation. Until the mentally ill child can free himself of the inhibitions that block his free expression emotionally, artistically and intellectually, the best we can do is to provide him with a vocabulary of sensory and concrete experience that will not leave him so far behind his luckier contemporaries who have both the vocabulary and the syntax.

When these children start to get well then 'The New Maths' can begin.

'Poetry is a still small voice speaking to people with minds and hearts.' (Bernard Levin.)

A Serious Proposal for Setting Up Non-Schools

By SEONAIID ROBERTSON

During my recent term in the United States, I attended a Colloquium on 'Is Teaching a Profession'? Among the distinguishing marks of a profession mentioned were a 'corpus of knowledge' necessary for entry, control of membership, status in the eyes of the public. After discussion of lawyers, dentists, doctors, wry comparisons were made about the unjustly low status of school teachers and the resentful contempt, rather than esteem, in which they were often, as a profession, held. This seemed puzzling to those present, who sought sadly for reasons why teachers, often as devoted as doctors, (perhaps more so in the States) were not more appreciated. I couldn't forbear from pointing out that we seek members of those professions when we have need of them. We are grateful for their services and when we complete our business we feel, at least temporarily, free of them. If we are not satisfied with our association we are able to change our doctor or lawyer.

The great majority of children didn't originally seek their school teachers, nor beg to be under their tutelage every day from 9 to 4. Before we are in a position to judge, a paternal state decrees that we should go to school, whether ripe for it or not, and stay there, blessed holidays excepted, for ten or twelve years. When we as adults **must** use the services of another profession we usually make our own choice from personal recommendations or public reputation. We almost never have this opportunity to choose a teacher or to escape from one.

The momentary casual resentment towards the bossy bus-conductor, or the scathing shop-assistant evaporates when we leave their presence. It is in the situation from which we can't escape, that resentment mounts up to dangerous pressure. Contrary to public opinion, most murders are perpetrated by those who have the closest relationships to their victims,

husbands and wives, parents and children, those who cannot escape living together. Even with the pleasantest teacher in the most enlightened state school, nearly every child must sometimes suffer from the sheer fact that he has **got** to stay there day after day without remission, shut in that classroom when he would rather be somewhere else. Then how much more desperate becomes the situation between the unenthusiastic scholar and the teacher whose patience is wearing thin.

Conrad Lorenz the biologist has graphically described for us the situation of people shut up together — admittedly in isolation — but he is describing the reactions of people who **chose** this situation in the first place.

'In such a situation (where aggression **must not** be allowed expression or the group would disintegrate) as I know from personal experience, aggression is roused by smaller and smaller provocations. Subjectively this is expressed by the fact that one reacts to the small mannerisms of one's best friends — such as the way in which they clear their throats or sneeze — in a way that would normally be adequate only if one had been hit by a drunkard.

Insight into the laws of this torturing phenomenon prevents homicide but does not allay the torment. The man of perception finds an outlet by creeping out of the barracks or tent or igloo and smashing a not-too-expensive object with as resounding a crash as the occasion merits.' Lorenz reminds us that Tinbergen called this 'a re-directed activity', smashing the object not the provoker.

If mature men behave like this, should we be surprised at the rudeness, the rebelliousness, in the last resort the truancy in many of our city schools? We spend an astonishing amount on trying to persuade such truants to return to school — to return to the very conditions which drove them to avoid it. Even if the teacher does feel like the good shepherd rejoicing at the return of the black sheep, he or she seldom has time to devote to discovering exactly what has driven him away originally and to devise an individual

programme as compelling as a magnet to keep him there. It is difficult not to spend too much energy uselessly on those others who, hating school as much as truants, continually stonewall or rebel vociferously, instead of on those who at that moment want help to learn. If there is a 'corpus of knowledge' within the teaching profession, one sure part of it is that one can teach little to an unwilling pupil who longs only to be out of the door.

I don't wish to simplify the situation to one factor. We know that the teacher is often the first adult against whom an insecure child can express his thwarted aggression, and teachers often drain off ambivalent feelings which cannot come into the open at home. The urge to power which may lead people to become teachers is suspect. Again, adolescents have myriads of problems which in the most favoured conditions lead to rebellious attitudes. Despite recent achievements in the building programme there are still millions of prewar desks cramping to present-day taller more developed adolescents who suffer the intense irritation which we would all feel when compelled to huddle into chairs too small, under tables too low, for hours a day. There are still thousands of overcrowded schools. These exacerbate irritations and create the conditions of overcrowding, the pressure for living room, in which even rats turn aggressive and bite their own young. How many of us in our schooldays lingered on a trip to the lavatory from the sheer relief of being alone for a moment.

While we search for more, more deeply hidden causes, we may as well face again this simple fact that all day long and every day many children are forced to go to school to be taught by someone they have not chosen, and 'subjects' which they see no point in studying. Until we can open up for and with each child a programme which does engage his interest and make him welcome both the teachers and conditions for study which school provides — and a few schools are trying to do this — then we had better find some relief for those who will probably swell the ranks of

delinquents in the next few years.

One simple thing we can do is to ease the unrelenting pressure to be present, to conform, to 'be quiet' which is obviously felt to be unreasonable by so many boys — I'm speaking chiefly of the boys as I have other suggestions for the girls, **SO I SERIOUSLY PROPOSE THE SETTING UP OF NON-SCHOOLS** — 'establishments' would be too pompous a word for what I suggest. We obviously cannot just say 'You need not come to school till you have got over this mood and are ready to take part again' and leave children to roam the streets, get into danger or plan dare-devil games or get drawn into criminal gangs — though it is true we don't seem to be able to prevent this by making them come to school! At first I considered whether each school's providing a 'non-classroom' would meet the case — a place in the school to which he could go when he felt under intolerable pressure. But if a tide of resentment has built up, if a child feels absolutely fed-up with his teachers or his mates — and don't we all at times? — even the sight of school, the smell, the associations will press too hard on him and negate the effect I want to produce, the effect of release. A non-school has got to be something as different from school as possible. Truancy appears to be commonest between ten and fifteen, rebelliousness usually thirteen to fifteen, and sheer-dead weight stonewalling fourteen to fifteen. So long as our laws remain as they are (and the situation will be exacerbated by raising the school leaving age) and so long as adolescents who wish to are not allowed to work for some half-days (which in some other countries has been shown to develop their sense of responsibility) we shall have to demand that the children do attend the Non-school. If the alternative is to be sent back to school, they may do this willingly! That accepted, it has to be strikingly free of the most hated aspects of school. Therefore, I would suggest physically, space to run, things to climb and kick, opportunities to smash (Tinbergen's re-directed activity) a place to make a noise without disturbing other people. Since these Non-schools should not be too far

from homes, many will necessarily be in the centre of cities, and the noise of traffic and hooters of factories and of jets overhead will not be greatly added to by a certain amount of noise which would be intolerable in a reverberating classroom. This sounds very like an adventure playground and it is — but it is a legal **alternative** to school, and it offers more stimulus to those ready to do more than play.

Many adolescents go through a period of hating to be washed and tidy, and what hours of frustrating battles teachers are asked to go through to try to persuade such rebels to come neat and clean or in their uniform — in fact, some adolescents have given this as a reason for truancy. The Non-School would be a place where one could go dirty and in old clothes. Parents who are permissive in this respect nearly always find that this stage passes rapidly and the interest in the opposite sex which develops naturally is the best incentive to an interest in dress. The present fascination with clothes which are at least colourful and individual in both sexes would re-inforce this.

Where are we to find space to race about and work off physical energy, or to crouch and brood alone or in groups, space to be dirty or noisy in our large cities? Fortunately, it is ready made! All large cities have open spaces awaiting redevelopment, old cinder plots by canals, or just waste ground in the centre or the outskirts. These are the kind of places truants like to congregate anyway. They need some old sheds (and if you ask them, old ones are probably preferred) some games equipment in the way of balls, bats, goalposts, etc. They need tools, hammers, axes, saws and material to operate on, and tins of paint to write slogans and paint the town red, pink or yellow. Since so little equipment is required the Non-school can move easily to another space when the site is developed — but how many have stood undeveloped ten years! Authorities which thought it necessary, could provide a boundary of flexible wire fencing which could be rolled up and moved when a new 'site' was taken over.

Obviously such Non-schools could not be unattended, but it might be more profitable to pay for a 'guardian', 'harbour-master', 'non-teacher' or what you wish to call him, rather than for an attendance officer or 'truancy man'. The children would have to register and he would have to inform their various schools so that they were accounted for, but his job would not be a purely negative one. The prime need is **relief from pressures to conform** which have borne too heavily. But a moment comes when the human need to be constructive asserts itself and the conditions to answer this need must be at hand. Perhaps — I am proposing such spartan provision — it will just be the need for something to sit on, and old boxes will be hauled in and knocked together. I would encourage the bringing of pets (to which adolescents can give affection dammed up from other outlets and which are forbidden in most Secondary schools). The making of things for them and the help or information on the care of these would be a **welcomed** intervention. Desultory talk reaches, at the same moment, the point of genuine enquiry — about the jets flying overhead or where a canal goes to — and if these nodal points can be sensed by a leader of insight and humour with a few reference and technical handbooks, a corner in social development may be turned. Makerenko, long ago, pointed out how much adolescents want and respect technical know-how, but even help in where to look and an introduction to the Public Library would often be a starting point.

Now I must face some objections which will certainly be made to this plan. Teachers will complain that if children attended the Non-school for some days, or some weeks, their work will be interrupted. But the work of the children with whom I am concerned is interrupted at present by truancy or by a flat refusal to become involved in school. Next, there would be fears of a large scale exodus of pupils towards Non-schools from some of our less scholastically minded forms. This would soon pass as most children are aware of the social and economic reasons for persisting at and finishing their education, and after a day or two of freedom their own good sense would

assert itself. **Most** children are glad to return to school, after a few weeks summer holiday. But I am concerned, not with the majority, but with the minority who truant or make school hell for the others. If we can't prevent truancy — and figures prove we can't — let's legalise it.

There would be genuine fear that groups of hard cases congregating in such Non-schools might turn them into dens of crime. The kind of crime which can be committed inside an enclosure in the presence of the non-teacher, would be limited, and it would at least be open, and in the last resort, if some become violent, help would be available. Let's face the fact that at present these characters are often put in the charge of a young inexperienced, sometimes gentle and idealistic teacher whose spirit they can break. How much less heart-break all round if they were free to register at the Non-school for a day or a week, and left to their own devices within the area or drawn into whatever ploy might be going on. Making a track for their dogs or mending and painting their bicycles would at least be co-operative not competitive activity. That relief from the domination of the teacher, especially in children who have been over dominated by either aggressive or ambitious parents, is in itself a therapeutic measure and this has been convincingly demonstrated by A. S. Neill and others. I am no advocate of Summerhill as the ideal of a **school**, but its example as a Non-school interests me. That the presence of children who are determined **not** to learn distracts from the conditions we owe to those who **do** want to learn, that's a fact which is all too apparent. The same astonishing result of relief from pressure has been convincingly demonstrated by George Lyard at Finchden Manor. Lyard himself has said that in many cases it is as though the boy, like a piece of elastic, has been stretched (by parents or by school) too rigorously for too long. In the atmosphere of Finchden he springs back, and in the free atmosphere he can relax, regress, and be the younger, less socially responsible person which he was not allowed to be at the proper time. This accords well with psychiatric belief. Within the permissive society of Finchden, more often

than not, he comes to accept his social responsibilities and enjoy the intellectual demands of study. Less hardened boys might respond in less time. Of course I know well that the positive educational contributions in these places I have mentioned, are made by the outstandingly human, knowledgeable and devoted men, Neill, Lyard, and the staff which they gather. We could wish there were more of the kind. But offering the opportunity to escape, even temporarily, from the anti-pathetic situation of school for a **sympathetic** alternative, would alone accomplish much for potential delinquents in releasing their build-up of resentment. There would be plenty of opportunities for that 're-direction of aggression' of which Tinbergen speaks. If they smashed the windows of their hut — well, no windows till they mended them. Homer Lane showed us how effective simple practical sanctions can be. They make sense in a world of senseless prohibitions. I would hope that the non-teachers, attracted by potentialities of such a free situation (for school can sometimes be a rigorous prison for an independent young teacher too) would find positive ways of responding to any interest of their non-pupils, and involving them in discovery or invention which in spite of themselves would draw them out of self-centered absorption. I have found that simply to become involved myself in their presence in some activity which really interests **me** can draw bored and dissatisfied adolescents into questions and requests to have-a-go themselves. The fascination of a skill like throwing a pot on the wheel, or turning a machine part on a lathe, draws them into its orbit. The fact that they could **choose** would immediately change the whole situation and establish them as human beings whose most precious possession is a measure of choice. Sometimes they may come to see the limit of their own skill and knowledge and may even begin to see school as a place where one goes willingly to learn.

**REPORT OF THE TWELFTH
ANNUAL WEEKEND CONFERENCE
SCOTTISH SECTION WEF
held in Scotland's Hotel, Pitlochry
27-29 October 1967**

We have already printed an interesting and informative article based on an address given to this conference by Mr Hugh Fairlie on Patterns of Comprehensive Organisation in the February issue. Unfortunately we printed an erroneous spelling of his name for which we apologise. We now print a programme of the conference which was a ways-and-means effort in orientation rather than a merely theoretical approach. Reports and the address we printed and the notes we print below show it to have made an important contribution to this subject. Starting with an awareness of theory but also a determination to adapt theory to diverse educational need, the conference was an educational development. We are sure the notes will set readers thinking and discussing.

Below is the programme of the conference with notes from two other papers.

Chairman: Charles M. Morrison, Dundee.

Subject:
COMPREHENSIVE EDUCATION — HOW?

Programme:

Friday 27 October

8 p.m. Hugh Fairlie M.A., B.Ed., Director of Education, County of Renfrew.
Paper read by A. Sinclair, Deputy Director.

Saturday 28 October

9.30 a.m. Professor William Taylor B.Sc. Econ., Ph.D., Deputy Director, Bristol Institute of Education.

10.30 a.m. Break for Coffee.

11 a.m. Questions and Discussion.

11.30 a.m. Discussion Groups.

1 p.m. Lunch.

Afternoon Free.

7.15 p.m. James M. Gardner M.A., Glenwood Secondary School, Glasgow.

8.45 p.m. Discussion Groups.

Sunday 29 October

9.45 a.m. Group Reports.

10.45 a.m. Break for Coffee.

11.15 a.m. Summing up by Baillie T. Ruthven M.A., Rector of the Royal High School, Edinburgh.

**NOTES OF AN ADDRESS DESCRIBING
HIS OWN COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL**

by **Mr James M. Gardner**
Glenwood School

This is a full and factual description of the organisation of the comprehensive school of which I am Headmaster, so that we may go on to discuss some of the questions and problems that are likely to be common to this system of organisation.

It is, however, impossible to deal with organisational questions without defining one's basic attitude to the principle of comprehensive education. Let me therefore first 'declare my interest'. I have long been sympathetic to the ideas of social and educational justice which I believe are promoted in the comprehensive school, and have held it wrong, morally and educationally, to separate children into clever and dull categories at the age of twelve, and to send them to separate schools for their education — wrong in principle, and disastrous in its results.

Secondly, the school we will consider, Glenwood in Castlemilk, has certain conditions, favourable and unfavourable, which derive from the community it serves, and which are not common to all schools at the moment of going comprehensive. So that, while there are certain basic questions that will have to be answered in all comprehensive schools — social integration, educational flexibility and richness of opportunity, good communication at

all levels — the urgency of these problems may vary from one area to another, and the answers may be worked out in different ways and at different speeds.

Glenwood and Castlemilk — school and community.

1. Castlemilk.

- a. A developing community of 4,000 people.
- b. Social and economic range. Similar to Gorbals no great cultural background.
- c. Previous educational and cultural background.
- d. Attitude now to Education.
- e. Social amenities. Library well used.
- f. Identification with Glenwood. Town identifies self with school, which is 9 years old. Four primary schools supply pupils and are closely linked.

2. Glenwood.

- a. History.
- b. Size.
- c. Intake Primaries.
- d. Good staff ratio in school.

You will realise from what I have said that we have had an easier situation to control than what many emerging comprehensive schools will have to face. What then have we done?

3. Social Integration. To make all pupils feel as fully as possible that they are involved in the life of the school, we have organised a fairly elaborate system of Housemasters and Tutor Groups. Four house masters each attend to the pupils from one feeder school. Housemasters link with primary school and come to know all 250 pupils. Each housemaster has tutors who have 25-27 pupils to look after. From the fourth year onwards a tutor must know work fairly intimately so that pupils who need help with study can be given this by the subject teacher concerned. Housemasters call in welfare officers when necessary.

We have also deliberately mixed pupils of varying attitudes and abilities in a wide range of extra-curricular activities.

We have also established quite strong links with the parents of our pupils-PTA, visits to school, open door policy; and we seem to have won

their confidence.

We also feel that the mixed ability teaching groups, which I shall mention in a moment, while primarily an educational system, have this same effect of breaking down social barriers.

All this because there is a real danger, much greater in some districts than in Castlemilk, that social differences may be perpetuated within a comprehensive school.

4. Educational Flexibility and Opportunity.

- a. Explain Primary School relationship with Secondary.
- b. Explain Streaming with system of bridges to help pupils move easily from one group to another.
- c. Explain unstreamed, mixed ability classes in great detail. Forming the classes: size and composition; new methods; experienced and unexperienced teachers; exams and exam results; ground covered; new attitude to 1st and 2nd year curriculum; **setting in 2nd year.** Effect on clever pupils. Effect on slow pupils who are withdrawn for special coaching.
- d. Brunton type courses used a great deal. Pupils are pleased with a scheme whereby they are placed in a situation in works or shops where they can see the relationship between what happens in school and in the world outside. Youth employment services are in touch regularly.

5. In this period of rapid change in education.

- a. Need for much discussion, formal and informal, in staff. E.g. Brunton, two-tier, Newsome report, tutor-groups, religious, social and moral education, SED circulars 600 and 614, mixed ability classes. SED Curriculum Paper 2.

Involvement of younger teachers essential: hence heightened interest and enthusiasm.

- b. Need to inform and involve parents.

- c. Need to bring in senior pupils — School Council — ask as well as tell.

d. Advisory Committee — need for balanced and objective criticism from outside.

6. These, then, seem to me to be important aspects of the situation in a new comprehensive school — the job of making all the pupils take root socially, the job discovering their educational capacity and of satisfying it, the job of making parents, teachers and pupils aware of what is being attempted and getting their co-operation.

If I have talked too much about my own school, you will just have to try to apply what I have said to other schools and areas with different conditions. But I think the basic questions will be similar, and I am sure that they can be fully answered and that solutions can only be found within the comprehensive school.

SOCIOLOGY OF THE COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL

Notes from an address by
Professor William Taylor of Bristol University.

1. Introduction

(i) Impossible in a single lecture to do justice to the size of the theme. Will approach it from two points of view:

(a) The comprehensive school in society — what factors have contributed to the need for a reorganisation of secondary education? What kind of society will the comprehensive school of the future serve?

(b) The sociology of the school — the patterns of goals and values, norms and statuses, formal and informal structures, etc., that characterise the school, and the way in which these can contribute to and interfere with the wider educational goals of that individual and society.

(ii) Even within these areas, impossible to cover all the necessary points, so will concentrate upon those that seem most significant and those on which the sociologist of education has been able to make a contribution by way of research and study.

2. Education and Industrialisation

(i) Central fact of social life today is that we live in an advanced industrialised, technologically

complex society.

(ii) Galileo, 1615:

‘Methinks that in the discussion of natural problems, we ought not to begin at the authority of places of scripture, but at sensible experiments and necessary demonstrations . . . concerning natural effects, that which either sensible experience sets before our eyes, or necessary demonstrations do prove unto us, ought not, upon any account, to be called into question, much less condemned upon the testimony of texts of scripture.’

(iii) Put crudely and simply, religion and ideology must not constrain the work of the man of science. This one of the central canons of our present day belief — Lyshenko, Nazi biology, etc., abhorred. once this conceded, the way is open for limitless change. Limits set by the pace of discovery and technological application, **not** by any decision as to what is ‘best’ for man, what constitutes the good life.

(iv) The impact of scientific discovery, technological development and industrialisation has been to restructure the occupational distribution of advanced societies, and the effects of this are being felt in all our other social institutions — family, church, school, social class and status systems and so on.

(v) Change in class structure of society. Decline in the demand for the unskilled. Distribution of labour force. Retraining, etc. — impact of the Industrial Training Act.

3. Education and Social Structure

(i) A mass industrialised society needs talent wherever it may be found — social origins and background (‘culture’) much less important than the ability to perform instrumental tasks. The technological society **must** therefore be a more open society.

(ii) At the same time there has been a tendency for alternative avenues of social mobility and advancement to become more limited — the tax system, the large scale corporation, etc. Education becomes one of the chief avenues of social mobility. Concern of the individual family with education as a way of achieving and maintaining status. (NB achievement rather than ascription

as in former times.)

(iii) Instrumentality, massification, specialisation, complexity, rapid change, all strike at the traditional social values that schools communicated to the young. Rapid social change (Klotsche quote).

(iv) Several beliefs characterised the early post-war arrangements for secondary education.

(a) Widely believed that only a minority of children could profit from the kind of academic secondary education that the selective secondary school provided. This belief can be shown to be linked with the facts of social and occupational stratification of the pre-1944 period, in which it had been difficult to absorb into employment all those with advanced education.

(b) Also believed that by the use of group tests of intelligence and other measures, that this minority of children could be recognised at the age of eleven. (Quote text book statements of the period. Whole generations of teachers brought up on these views.)

(c) Also believed that the school possessed a much greater degree of social autonomy than we know to be the case today. (E.g. Secondary Modern school 'Will be given parity of conditions; parity of esteem it must earn by its own efforts.')

(v) We are now all very familiar with the findings of the series of official and unofficial reports and research studies that appeared during the fifties, and which revealed how there was a continuing wastage of talent within the system, how the son of the Manager had a very much greater chance of receiving an academic secondary and higher education than the son of the semi-skilled worker, even if intelligence and attainment were held constant. No need to enlarge upon this theme.

(vi) What all these sociological, social-psychological and psychological studies did was to help to create a climate of opinion in which the selection of children for widely different types of secondary education at the age of eleven could no longer be legitimised. They showed that

(a) The instruments used for selection were neither so reliable or so valid as had been assumed.

(b) Opportunities varied between one part of the country and another.

(c) The effects of selection were to compound and reinforce the differences between children that arose from the interaction of their hereditary endowment and home background.

(vii) These findings chimed with a public opinion characterised by

(a) Parental anxiety regarding the increasing occupational saliency of secondary education.

(b) A recognition of the growing importance of qualifications and the need for larger numbers of the well-educated.

(c) Teachers' experience of having successfully prepared 'rejected' children for public examinations.

(d) Egalitarian political and social sympathies.

(viii) The move towards comprehensive reorganisation can be seen as a product of all these, and other, influences.

4. Learning and the Technological Revolution.

(i) As a bridge between the foregoing consideration of the social factors that underlie ongoing educational change, and a look at the internal social organisation of the school, can examine the kinds of learning that seem appropriate to the needs of today and tomorrow.

(ii) Goes without saying that the individual needs to be in a position to go on learning throughout the whole of his life. Emphasis today upon the **structure** of subjects, rather than facts and information. Need for the individual to be introduced to what may be called **methods of enquiry**, which can be generalised into new situations. Curriculum innovation in Science and Mathematics, etc. (Importance of Bristol Junior Science Project.)

(iii) This understanding has to be achieved within ever more complex fields of knowledge. In an analysis of the problems of the post-Industrial society the American historian Daniel Bell has stated:

'The basic premise of our economy has been that the decisions of the businessman would work out for the common good. This is no longer true. There are three 'new' problems: (1) Human capital, which cannot be handled on the same basis as financial capital; (2) The information revolution which will bring our society to a grinding halt unless it is solved; (3) Differences in the pace at which various parts of industry and society are moving. We need an entirely different set of conceptual tools for the solution of these problems.'

(iv) The new concepts associated with the use of human capital have given rise to the science of human relations — progressive educators often have a feeling of opposition to the machine (romantic ideology of college of education, etc.). But should remember Sturt

'The history of education since 1800 can be seen largely as the history of the machines which have set children free to receive learning and have made their elders anxious to impart it to them. The acceptance of the dignity of all man springs from a materialistic as well as a religious motive.'

(v) Fashionable these days to show acquaintance with McLuhan. Two quotes that seem useful in this context.

'As anything becomes more complex, it becomes less specialised. Man is more complex and less specialised than a dinosaur.'

'Our education has long ago acquired the fragmentary and piecemeal character of mechanism. It is now under increasing pressure to acquire the depth and inter-relation that are indispensable in the all at once world of electric technology.'

(vi) Coping with the information revolution to which Bell refers. Computers, money, water, sheep.

(vii) Types of learning appropriate at various stages of technological development. Some key concepts:

(a) Traditional, pre-industrial societies
SOCIALISATION/RIGIDITY/STABILITY/
TRIBAL ENCYCLOPEDIA GENERATIONAL
CONTINUITY.

(b) Industrialised, production line societies
(Chaplin; Modern Times)

CLASSIFICATION/ORGANISATION/
LINEARITY/REINFORCEMENT.

(c) Post-industrial, automated societies
STRUCTURE/TRANSFER/ABSORPTION/
CONCENTRICITY/SATURATION
INSIGHT/PLAY.

5. Comprehensive School Organisation and Learning.

(i) Have tried to show that the Comprehensive school is virtually inevitable in our kind of world. What of its internal organisation — how can this affect the achievement of educational and social goals?

(ii) Self-concepts. Quote from Hargreaves. Selection and differentiation within the school. (A and alpha, etc.)

(iii) Great importance of the teachers' attitudes and techniques. Functions previously discharged by the system must now be discharged by the teacher. Concepts of guidance, counselling, cooling out, shunting, etc.

(iv) Team approaches to teaching and learning. The flexible school.

(v) The role of the adult in the school. Structure of the occupation of teaching. Functional analysis of roles. Trump plan. Stepped salary scales. In-service training.

(vi) Records and personal guidance. Inducting and non-inducting institutions. Teachers responsibilities — specific or diffuse?

Postponed publication

Owing to unforeseen difficulties we have had to hold over till next time an interesting article from a student teachers' notebook, Carmel Cassidy's 'Movement with Mentally Handicapped Children'. This article will add to the interest of the April issue.

BOOK REVIEWS

Motivation

Edited by Dalbir Bindra and Jane Stewart

Experiments in Visual Perception

Edited by M. D. Vernon

Attitudes

Edited by Marie Jahoda and Neil Warren

Personality Assessment

Edited by Boris Semeonoff

The four books listed above are the first in a series, which will eventually include over twenty-five volumes of readings in psychology. Under the over-all editorship of Professor B. M. Foss they aim to provide the student with a probably unparalleled over-view of psychological thinking and development, dating back to the beginnings of modern psychology at the turn of the century.

The scheme is a simple and somewhat novel one in that the field of psychology has been broken down into a number of major subjects and lines of exploration. Collected into each volume are extensive and representative statements by a great variety of writers in each aspect of the subject. The total effect is open to criticism in that the quality of contributions vary widely and it is sometimes difficult to follow a consistent theme. Nevertheless, in educational terms, these volumes do provide a wide scatter of information.

Particularly pleasing, I found, was the volume on Personality Assessment, edited by Boris Semeonoff which includes a brilliant contribution by Professor Hilgard which sets forward in an intriguing and convincing fashion recent researches aimed to test psychoanalytical concepts but also does not ignore the more mathematical and limited contributions of workers like Cattell and Eysenck.

Other volumes that follow are similarly patterned though some with rather less success. For instance the volume on Motivation left this reader at least with the feeling that the significance of unconscious processes had been omitted perhaps with unconscious determination.

Not least the advantages at the present of this massive series is that the price of each volume is easily within the reach of every student.

Robert W. Shields.

Parents and Children

Clarice McNamara and Margaret Henry
Angus & Robertson Ltd., Sydney and London,
12s approx.

If what we know about child rearing were generally applied, human society could be transformed. The problem is one of communication — of providing parents with the knowledge and understanding they need — in an assimilable form. Lecturing at people does not work. Cold print — information academically offered — reaches only a minority, and changes fewer still. One has to find warmer, more striking ways of communicating if anything of significance is to happen.

Parents and Children provides a skilful solution to this problem. It offers to parent groups, homecraft classes and, indeed, any interested and concerned individuals, an evocative incentive to explore and clarify the fundamental issues of dealing with children. The core of the book is a series of ten brief dramatised situations, each one of which brings out typical problems in parent-child relationships. The incidents are well designed to promote discussion because they touch the perennial difficulties of parents — lying, jealousy, stealing, sexual curiosity, etc. — of which everyone has some experience. This method of case history followed by group discussion has been very effectively used in industrial training and here we find it applied to an even more important area — the fostering of healthy, happy and formative family life.

However, the book goes beyond providing stimulating material for discussion. Each dramatic episode is followed by a commentary which points up the issues in the episode. These commentaries extend and reinforce one another so that, cumulatively, they provide, in the simplest possible form, the essential elements of contemporary parentcraft. However treated — acted and discussed, read and discussed, or, at a pinch, just read — this book cannot but deepen insight into the turmoils and striving of growing up and, thereby, serve to replace unfruitful anxiety and conflict by understanding and mutual trust. A useful addition to the book is a note on how to conduct informal group discussion. In fact, armed with a few copies of this book, any group can embark on the adventure of exploring how it comes about that children behave as they do.

James Hemming

Health Education in Primary Schools

Research in Comparative Education Study.
International Bureau of Education Price 60s

This comparative study of Health Education in Primary Schools compiled in preparation for the XXXth Session of the International Conference on Public Education, Geneva 1967 is based on answers by Ministries of Education to a questionnaire sent to them by the International Bureau of Education and UNESCO and, as such, it is likely to be a record of official policy rather than of actual practice.

Little attempt has been made to formulate a general concept of health education or to correlate the answers, the resulting book is in effect a list of responses from individual countries. It is, however, a valuable source book for students of Comparative Education who can relate the information here to the educational systems of the countries concerned.

In the first part of the book the information is classified under the questions on the questionnaire, which related to: the place assigned to health education in the timetable, extra-scholastic activities, the financing of education, the aims and syllabuses of health education and teaching methods used; parent collaboration and means of evaluation; teaching staff, training and inspection, and finally international action and plans for the future.

In the second part of the book the answers are classified country by country.

Although this is largely a list it could be used to suggest further studies —

e.g. the relationship between moral education and health education, scientific education and health education; or the extent to which agencies outside the formal education system contribute to school health education e.g. the Red Cross and the Ministries of Health.

Few studies in comparative education have included health education, this book should provide a useful starting point.

Mary Holmes.

Tropical Health Science

Marshall and Hughes

Cambridge University Press, 1967; pp 144; 13s

In this volume the authors have produced a concise factual text on the structure and physiology of man and on his essential requirements for healthy active life. Factors which detract from his well-being are considered under the broad headings of malnutrition and infectious disease which together constitute his greatest threat to health in tropical countries. The reader is instructed on these important subjects and guided towards reduction or avoidance of their adverse influences. In the final chapters the organisation and administration of health services operating in more affluent areas are described briefly and attention drawn to international bodies concerned with limiting the spread of disease. The book is written in the simplest English and using the fewest words consistent with clarity, as befits a text-book primarily intended to instruct students resident in tropical areas and wishing to study for the Cambridge Local Examination in Health Science. The authors suggest that it might prove valuable to others intending to visit or work in the tropics and this it certainly would be even to those lacking a formal training in biology. A glossary of 'difficult words' is appended for their especial benefit.

In a text-book covering an examination syllabus accuracy is of great importance. It is a credit to the authors that this text is notably free from errors of fact (except that p.82, line 3, should read 'fresh broth culture'). However, some tables and figures appear not to have been checked as rigorously as is required in a book for elementary students who tend to regard statements in print as being beyond dispute. Some errors which call for correction in subsequent editions are as follows: Table 3.2. the footnote is misleading; Table 3.3. omits liver function; Table 10.1 quotes bacterial and viral sizes 1000 times greater than they are by misusing 'micron' for 'millimicron'; Fig. 1.6 omits animals from the nitrogen cycle; Fig. 5.4 wrongly labels the renal artery. In the reviewer's opinion Fig. 11.4 is unlikely to convey much to the elementary student and might better have been replaced by a simpler illustration of virus particles.

Despite these regrettable, but relatively few, inaccuracies this book is welcomed for the contribution it will make to the surest method of improving human welfare in under developed tropical areas of the world, namely the education of the people in science in general and hygiene in particular.

T. W. Burrows.

A Basis for Primary Mathematics

P. K. Chivers

Pupils book 1 & 2; Teachers book A

Ward Lock Educational Company

It is very rare in these days of mathematical revolution to find an author who has attempted to treat Primary mathematics in a new and interesting way which is not at the same time related to Discovery and Nuffield Mathematics Project ideas.

Mr Chivers, in the first two pupils books of 'A Basis for Primary Mathematics' has done just this. The course is intended for pupils ages 6-11 and each book is in three sections, Arithmetic, Geometry and Modern topics. There will be six pupil's books and three indispensable teacher's books. Book one's number section is directed towards the child whose number experience has been gained from structural materials and the stress is on the study of number rather than the four rules. In fact the first page contains examples involving all four rules. The 'number in the box theme', i.e. $2 + \square + 2 = 5$, runs through the arithmetic sections of the two books and a new use for the symbol $)$ is invented in an attempt to distinguish between partition and quotation.

The geometry in book one is based on the fact that children of 5 or 6 know far more about shape than they do about number and shows a variety of solid shapes out of which the pupils will be led to forms of classification. The modern topic section deals with very elementary notions of vectors binary notation with many other offshoots.

The whole of book one is aimed at the child who is prevented from making mathematical progress by being unable to read. It only contains the word of, all other explanation must come either from the pupil's understanding of the situation or from the teacher.

Book two contains more reading matter, continues the study of numbers from 10 to 19 and then sweeps into place value. The modern section continues the binary work, extends it to base three and then introduces not equal, greater than, less than and their notation together with the concept of a set. The geometry studies the idea of cross-section.

These two books together with practical work and genuine discovery could form a real basis for exciting and interesting mathematics in the transitional period of infant to junior work. In this way a progressively minded teacher could combine the best of the American type of number work with the latest English developments to produce a really vital and worthwhile mathematics course in the Primary school.

N. A. Pass

A Students' Guide to Efficient Study

D. E. James

Pergamon Press; Hard covers 12s 6d; Flexi-covers 6s 6d

This book, written by an educational psychologist, is a valuable one for the student. It is attractively produced, and has been written with lists of points under headings; this makes for easy memorizing and is an excellent example of the note-making technique which the student could well copy. A useful feature of the book is a very detailed list of contents.

After a brief introduction, the first part of the book, which has a sound psychological basis, is concerned with 'picking up information, holding and manipulating it in

the brain.' The second part gives sound advice on getting the most out of practical class work, group work, books and lectures. There is a useful discussion on the pros and cons of vacation work. The third part is concerned with suitable conditions for learning, which here is called 'efficient perception' (a little off-putting?). The writer then deals with activities required from the student: essay writing (some valuable hints here), examinations and preparing short talks.

The reviewer wishes he had been able to read this short book before he went up to a University. He will, however, confidently recommend it to his 'A' level and more advanced students.

P. S. Richards.

Review of Study Aid Series

Published by Methuen 1967

30 study booklets discussing major novels and 9 Shakespearian plays

This series appears to be planned for 'O' level English candidates, although it is not clear whether or not it is intended for classroom use, or whether it has been compiled for students working in isolation. Space forbids me to review each of these books, and I have chosen to take the largest groups of books — those discussing Shakespearian plays as an example of the series.

'Shakespeare was killed at school for me', the phrase can be heard at any level of society, from church hall to science faculty. This series is surely another way of doing just that. The student is 'told' that 'the essential reason for the permanent value of Shakespeare's plays is that they have good plots and entertaining stories'. Certainly the author dwells almost exclusively on the plot in the course of his commentary, including only the briefest of character studies, and excluding any insight into the real fibre of the play. Indeed we are informed that *The Tempest* 'is in essence a fairy-tale akin to *A Midsummer Night's Dream* in which the protagonists are the symbol of forces dimly perceived by the poet as ruling those imaginative aspects of life "such as dreams are made on"'. Apart from being incomprehensible to an 'O' level student, this passage reveals the superficiality which appears to me to pervade this series.

I fervently believe that Shakespeare can be enjoyed, yes, actually enjoyed by young students if tackled in an imaginative and lively way. Textual knowledge is a necessity, whether or not an exam is imminent. But is it really necessary to know 'what the third servant applies to Gloucester's bleeding face after his eyes have been put out' or 'Before the time of which prophet the Fool lived?'.

How much more positive and creative would be a study of the intensely powerful imagery in *Lear*.

It would be unfair to suggest that the majority of what is said in this study-aid series is unsound. Used by a student of literature who has already discovered the magic of Shakespeare, the series could be quite an effective revision from the technical point of view. The point made at the beginning of each edition by the publisher, that the book is only meant as an aid, and not a substitute for the test, is a valid one. But that a school pupil should be given this book in order to pass an examination is something that I, as an English teacher can only abhor. Perhaps the only positive and creative outcome of this series may be that its sterile, pre-packaged quality may force us to

re-think our attitude towards the structure and content of literature examinations.

Hazel Smith.

The Social Context of the School

S. John Eggleston

Routledge and Kegan Paul Students Library of Education 15s

The Students Library of Education series is turning out to be a most attractive and valuable project. This book, by the new Professor of Education at Keele, meets the requirements of the series admirably; it introduces students, in a perfectly straightforward way, to knowledge about the social environment of the school, while at the same time avoiding the danger of writing for one's academic peers rather than for students, whose needs are clearly different. The result is a lucid and well thought-out introductory text.

Research in the sociology of education has, since the war, over-concentrated (and this was very necessary) on investigating the social background of the individual child. Now, interest is moving towards gaining a greater understanding of the social system of the school, and of the relationship of the school to that of the environment outside the school. It is this latest aspect that is the subject matter of this book, and Professor Eggleston rounds up most of the relevant research, though there is a curious neglect of the contribution made to our understanding by urban sociologists. A pity too that the book came out before the Enfield affair — it would have been nice to have his views on that.

Many issues are touched on — population change, educational administration, the immigrant community, the peer group and so on, but 'touched on' is all that the author is able to do in the space available. This is a great pity because some of the issues need much more time spent on them. No doubt the Publishers wish to keep down costs, but another 10,000 words allowed to the author would improve its value to the reader tremendously. Shortage of space restricts and often leads to absurdities: for example, the Conclusion is squeezed into two pages only. And why is there no index?

Nevertheless, this is a good book in a valuable series, and for those teachers in Colleges and Universities who are trying to inject a greater social dimension into the training of teachers it will be a most useful addition.

J. M. Raynor.

Liberal Studies 3

C. A. Blackman, F. E. Stygall, T. W. Harries, R. G. Skan and D. G. Stygall
Cassell, 22s 6d

This is the third volume of a deservedly popular series. The five authors have written between them six sections, each section being designed to provide enough material and student activity for half a term. The sections are: Television, Language and Society, Supplying our needs, Learning, Music and all that Jazz and growing up to Love.

Each section is written to a similar plan:

- (a) The aim of the section
- (b) A detailed list of contents.
- (c) A list of background reading and other teaching

Education for International Understanding: Suggestions for Clarifying Terms and Delineating Views

Ralph H. Hunkins

State University of New York,
Plattsburgh, New York.

'... it is well to bear in mind that the heart of any program of developing international understanding is the ability to associate differences with **friendliness** rather than hostility. That is the bull's eye of the teaching target ...' Leonard Kenworthy.¹

'World peace ... does not require that each man love his neighbour ...' President Kennedy.²

James Becker and Martha Porter have told us that increased precision in defining 'international understanding' will diminish the confusion and lack of direction that presently characterize programs in education for international understanding.³ When Becker and Porter claim that precise definitions will abolish confusion, it raises a question in this inquirer's mind: Is the sole source of confusion that of imprecise terminology? Once writers state exactly what they mean when they say 'international understanding,' will they all mean exactly the same thing? When this inquirer reads the literature in the United States on education for international understanding he is bothered, as are Becker and Porter, by the absence of precision in the use of terms. The diligent reader can, however, piece together rough definitions for various terms in the works of at least some of the writers. Once he has done this he learns that not all writers do mean the same thing by 'international understanding.'

On an issue as complex and complicated as the relationship of education to peaceful relations between nations, it is understandable that some of the differences and disagreements go deeper than the surface problem of precision in terminology. As one reads the literature on education for international understanding there are several factors that contribute to bewilderment: (1) key terms are only vaguely defined, as noted by Becker and Porter; (2) varying views emerge as the reader states for himself the definitions implicit in the works of various authors; and (3) perhaps the most

bewildering of all, the variance in views goes unrecognized and unexplained by the writers. Because each writer gives vague definitions to his terms, the differences between writers is obscured, hence, no writer is encouraged to explain why his view varies from others. The teacher who seeks aid from the literature must sort out the various views and must develop his own explanations for why different views exist. He receives little help in these difficult tasks from the writers. If the teacher becomes vaguely aware that different views exist but cannot quite state them or explain them, he will, at that point, become confused. Imprecise terminology, then, is not the sole source of confusion for those who would educate for international understanding. Absence of explanations for varying views is also a source of confusion.

Becker and Porter are certainly right in saying that sharpened definitions are needed. The reason for increased attention to terminology is not that all programs in the schools will then be headed in the same direction, however. The reason for clearly defined terms is that those who would hold dialogue on education for international understanding can move from superficial problems to problems of great depth. Those in dialogue can cease asking, 'What do you mean?' and begin asking, 'What reasons can you give in defense of the particular position that you hold?' When one urges writers on education for international understanding to heed their definitions, he should be prepared for an apparent diminishment in consensus. The rationale for attending to one's definitions is not so much the long-range goal of consensus as it is the more immediate goal of clearly delineated views.

Once a writer recognizes that differing views exist, he will be forced to explain why he holds one view and not another. Then the teacher who approaches the literature will have laid out for him different stances, explanations for holding these stances, and statements as to whether certain stands are complementary or contradictory in their relationship. The teacher may still have doubts about what to teach in the classroom, but at least his confusion will be the result of a genuinely complicated problem rather than the result of an intruding and unnecessary problem of vague terminology.

Thus far the following claims have been made.

There is a need for precise definitions among those who write on education for international understanding. Precise definitions will lead to clearly delineated, but differing, views. Once the differing views are recognized, writers will be forced to offer justifications for the view they hold. Then the dialogue on education for international understanding will have moved from semantical problems to problems related to the real world of human behaviour, behaviour in the classroom and on the international scene. It is hoped that such a change in the dialogue will put us one step closer to the ultimate goal of protecting all mankind from extinction by atomic, biological, or chemical warfare.

If it is then agreed that clearly delineated views are needed in the literature on education for international understanding, and if it is agreed that careful attention to terminology will create such delineation, the question arises: How does one begin if he wishes to improve his usage of terms? It would seem, ostensibly, that writers on education for international understanding could at least agree on some preliminary rules for defining their terms. This inquirer has not seen a discussion of such rules in the literature. Leonard Kenworthy does make a plea for 'adequate terminology' but he establishes no rules.⁴ Actually, the goal of agreement on explicit criteria for defining terms is not easily achieved. Some logicians believe that 'proper' definitions relate attributes of a state-of-affairs to the word for that state-of-affairs in a manner that constitutes logical equivalence. Unless one can replace the term with its attributes in any sentence where the term is used, one does not have a 'proper' definition say some logicians. But others claim that words can be defined by clusters of weighted attributes. Those who hold the 'cluster concept' believe that some attributes are more important than others in defining a word and that no single attribute is strictly necessary.⁵ Such a conception leads to statements that the context of a word is relevant to its definition. Stanley Ballinger has pointed out that definitions have been classified by theorists as 'lexical, real, stipulative, descriptive, programmatic, and/or persuasive.' Ballinger reduces these to two: descriptive and stipulative and then adds a third — 'normative.'⁶ Norris Sanders argues against the use of descriptive definitions and for the use of stipulative definitions.⁷

It is the belief of this inquirer that at least some of

this confusion concerning proper definitions can be escaped. The writer on education for international understanding must ask himself, 'What types of definitions will I use?' To answer this question he must first decide what his **purpose** is in using any of the types. Reportive (descriptive) definitions would serve the purpose of showing how others use certain terms and how their usage differs from, or is the same as, definitions appearing in other works. Stipulative definitions would serve the purpose of sharpening the logic within some given essay on international understanding. In stipulating that 'education' means X, that 'international understanding' means Y, and that 'peace' means Z, a logical network of ideas is being established that tends to force a writer into consistency of language and clarity of thought. It would probably be helpful if all writers on international understanding made use of both reportive and stipulative definitions.

When the meaning of the phrase 'education for international understanding' is discussed at all in the literature, it is frequently handled as a singular term rather than a composite of various terms. In his plea for 'adequate terminology', Leonard Kenworthy sometimes allows the phrase 'education for international understanding' to refer to a **type of education**, but at other times in this plea he allows it to refer to a **type of student**, a 'world-minded' student.⁸ One frequently finds references in the literature to a peaceful world populated by people who possess mutual understanding. In these cases the referent for 'international understanding' is neither a type of education nor a type of student but a certain **state-of-affairs on the international scene**.

It is here suggested that all writers on the subject of education for international understanding agree to the following rules:

1. Let 'education' stand for teacher directed activities, loosely — classroom practices.
2. Let 'international understanding' refer to student characteristics. Then international understanding would be the goal of the teacher directed activities.
3. Let 'peace' refer to a state-of-affairs on the international scene. Then peace becomes the rationale making certain pupil characteristics desirable.

These rules establish boundaries beyond which the referents for key terms cannot go. There would still remain much disagreement on which educational activities are desirable, which pupil characteristics should be the teacher's goal, the nature of peace, and the contribution to it that pupils might make.

Once these rules are accepted the term 'international understanding' would begin to perform the highly important function of separating educational theory from socio-political theory in a thorough analysis of the total problem area of education for international understanding. The educational theorist is, in general, better qualified to discuss the relationship of teacher activities to pupil characteristics. The political scientist or sociologist is perhaps better qualified to discuss the relationship of international understanding (pupil characteristics) to decisions by national leaders about relations between nations. It is the President of the United States who will push the button or talk to Moscow on the red phone, not some collective mass of people possessing or lacking international understanding.

It was stated earlier that the rationale for attention to definition of terms is not the long-range goal of consensus, but the more immediate goal of making differences stand out. If all writers were to accept the rules suggested above, then not only would their differences stand out but the point at which they disagree could be more easily located. One might find, for example, that two writers agree on the meaning of international understanding (pupil characteristics) but disagree on the teacher activities such characteristics call for. On the other hand, the point of contention might be on the term 'international understanding' with some claiming that it refers to attitudes of friendliness residing in the affective domain and others claiming that it refers to a grasp of facts and theories about other cultures or about diplomatic strategies, thus placing understanding in the cognitive domain. Still another possibility would be that the various writers disagree on the nature of peace or on the manner in which peace is to be attained. It may well be found that this is the crux of the issue. This inquirer anticipates learning that the varying views on education for international understanding have their roots in varying conceptions regarding the steps that man must take to arrive at a durable peace.

It has been constantly reiterated that once

semantical problems have been eliminated more profound issues will present themselves. To avoid promulgating the very confusion here berated, an effort will be made to state explicitly the views that this inquirer thinks he sees in the literature, views that should emerge once the writers on education for international understanding begin saying exactly what they mean.

When Clyde Kluckhohn writes about understanding that can lead to peace, he has in mind knowledge of other cultures similar to that possessed by the anthropologist. He would have people increase their cognitive grasp of facts and theories that explain, i.e., help us **understand**, why people from different cultures behave differently.⁹ Many curriculum guides have this type of understanding as their aim.¹⁰ It will be referred to hereinafter as 'IU-K' for 'international understanding-knowledge of other peoples.' International education in the state of New York has taken on an area study flavor under the leadership of Ward Morehouse, Director of the Office of Foreign Area Studies within the State Education Department. What is to be **understood**, says Morehouse, is other peoples and cultures.¹¹

Werner Levi ridicules the beliefs of men like Kluckhohn and Morehouse who claim that IU-K is related to peace. Says Levi:

'What help is it to the potential victim if the cannibal makes him understand what values and beliefs are responsible for his being eaten?'¹²

It is the **intention** of the foreigner that must be understood according to Levi. Such understanding will be referred to hereinafter as 'IU-IN' for international understanding-intentions.'

Leonard Kenworthy also seems to disagree with the IU-K position. Says he:

'Most programs of education for world-mindedness start at the wrong spot. They plunge into studies of other lands and peoples, relationships between nations, international institutions, the United Nations, and world governments.'¹³

But if it is not IU-K, neither is it IU-IN that Kenworthy would have us mean by 'international understanding.' It may be noted in the quotation

that opens this article that Kenworthy uses the term to mean attitudes of friendliness. IU-K and IU-IN are both within the cognitive realm. Kenworthy places international understanding in the affective domain. Such usage of the term 'international understanding' will be referred to hereinafter as 'IU-A' for 'international understanding-attitudes.'

Ralph Preston, Samuel Everett, and Christian Arndt all use international understanding to refer to attitudes of friendliness and toleration thus placing them in the IU-A camp with Kenworthy.¹⁴

Hans Morgenthau discredits both IU-A and IU-K. He places his faith in IU-IN saying:

'Individual experience, which anybody can duplicate at will, shows that increased **friendship** is not necessarily a concomitant of increased understanding. There are, of course, numerous instances in which A has misunderstood the character and the motives of B and in which clarification of the facts will remove the source of conflict. Such is not the case when A and B are engaged in a conflict in which their vital interests are at stake. A does not fight B for economic advantage because he misunderstands the **intentions** of B; it is rather because he understands them only too well. Many an American GI went to France full of sentimental friendship for the French people whom he did not know. His friendly feelings did not survive the shock of understanding.'¹⁵

The ideas of J. R. Skretting tend to fit within the IU-IN category. He has told the social studies teachers of the United States that 'the challenge of realism is a difficult one, but must be met to really build a climate permissive of a more "warless world".'¹⁶

Some of the writers whose positions are here categorized might feel that their view has been oversimplified. So much the better. Let them speak out. Let them say precisely wherein they agree and wherein they disagree with others who write on education for international understanding. Then the discussion will have moved from vague definitions and hazy views to clearly delineated stances. That is exactly what is needed.

Notes

1. **Introducing Children to the World.** New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1956. p. 204. Emphasis added.
2. From Kennedy's American University address, 1963, as quoted by Theodore C. Sorensen. **Kennedy.** Harper & Row, Publishers, 1965. p. 515.
3. James M. Becker and Martha J. Porter. 'What Is Education for International Understanding?' **Social Education** 30: 31-33; January 1966.
4. 'How Can Secondary Schools Promote the Growth of Adolescents in International Understanding?' in Leonard S. Kenworthy, Special Issue Editor. **International Understanding Through the Secondary School Curriculum.** Special issue of **The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals** 40: 10-15; December 1956.
5. For a discussion of various approaches to the defining of terms see Michael Scriven. 'Definitions, Explanations, and Theories,' in Herbert Feigl et al., editors. **Concepts, Theories, and the Mind-Body Problem.** Vol. II of the **Minnesota Studies in the Philosophy of Science.** Minneapolis, Minnesota: The University of Minnesota Press, 1958. p. 99-195.
6. **The Nature and Function of Educational Policy.** Occasional Paper No. 65-101. Bloomington, Indiana: Center for the Study of Educational Policy, Department of History and Philosophy of Education, School of Education, Indiana University, May 1965. p. 4.
7. **Classroom Questions: What Kinds?** New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1966. p. 109-110.
8. 'How Can Secondary Schools Promote the Growth of Adolescents in International Understanding?' in Leonard S. Kenworthy, Special Issue Editor. **International Understanding Through the Secondary School Curriculum.** Special issue of **The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals** 40: 10-15; December 1956.
9. **Mirror for Man.** New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1949. p. 274.
10. Theodore W. Parsons. 'Cross-Cultural Understanding: Another Look.' **Educational Leadership** 19: 491; May 1962.
11. **The International Dimensions of Education in New York State.** Albany, New York: The University of the State of New York, The State Education Department, 1963, p. 1.
12. **Fundamentals of World Organization.** Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press; 1950. p. 190.
13. **World Horizons for Teachers.** New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. p. 48.
14. Ralph C. Preston. 'World Understanding in the Curriculum,' in Ralph C. Preston, editor. **Teaching World Understanding.** New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1955. p. 199. Christian O. Arndt and Samuel Everett. 'Analysis of Issues,' in Christian O. Arndt and Samuel Everett, editors. **Education for a World Society: Promising Practices Today.** New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1951. p. 238.
15. **Politics Among Nations.** New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1965. Third edition. p. 523. Emphasis added.
16. J. R. Skretting, 'Why Do We Have Wars?' **Social Education** 17: 48; January 1953.

May issue will contain

"TO RIPEN INTO BLOSSOM"

A report about experience concerned with the education of children in a residential psychiatric unit by J. D. Haldane, consultant psychiatrist, Bety Willsher, teacher, children's in-patient unit, J. D. Smith, Senior Assistant Chief Male Nurse, all working at Cupar, Fife.

This interesting report had to be held over owing to lack of space in this issue.

*“As many first hand experiences
as possible”*

an account of experiments in creative education
in a London primary school
by **D. J. Skinner**

When defining shifts in the spectrum of educational theory and practice one must always be careful to evaluate a method or a philosophy against the social fabric of the times. Even a sub-strata of the population, which for convenience sake we call a community, needs reassurance in change. It is within this context that the attempts to forge a creative school can be examined.

I have been head teacher at Michael Faraday (JM) for just over two years.

The school was first built in 1874 and is somewhat typical of that austere period, although the architect catered for the large classes of those days by giving each room some 650 square feet of working space.

The neighbourhood, gaunt, grey and decaying, reflected a violence that was both verbal and physical. I once, in speaking on the deprivations of our community, used Sartre's description of Tintoretto 'His birth mirrored his death and in between lay scorched earth'. For many of the parents of my pupils life is portrayed in peeling walls, rotting wood and rats. When listening to a mother speak of her home, I told her I knew what she had to put up with. She gave me a sad, tired smile 'Do you Mr. Skinner, I wonder?' She was, of course, right. How could I possibly know. No teaching or social experience I had previously encountered could possibly have prepared me for this deprived community. The local council are now demolishing the neighbourhood and replacing slum houses with tall blocks of flats; unfortunately this has tended to add to the instability within the community who are inclined to resent change. One, of course, tends to generalise in discussing any neighbourhood, but in spite of the pockets of modern, decent houses the picture I have given is, I feel substantially correct.

It may be useful at this point to discuss the

heads role when attempting to change an educational structure. Certainly role playing in a creative school, whether it be the head's, teacher's child's or parent's should be very carefully examined. If the head's role is played out at the expense of the needs and expectations of the community, can a creative school ever emerge? My experience is that people who conform rarely succeed in being creative. Again, in community terms, an isolate is undesirable; does the head teacher come within this category? I felt that we should examine very carefully the expectations, both intellectual and social, of our children and then try to define our own areas of responsibility. In practical terms I wrote a staff paper pleading for acceptance in the teaching force; I needed the contact of children and adults in the learning situation. The staff needed reassurance that my presence would not lead to a critical assessment of their teaching skills; I believe that I am now accepted and indeed welcomed as an extra pair of hands. We have also converted the head's study into a comfortable staff sitting room.

However the immediate task at Michael Faraday seemed to lie in cooling down the overheated relationships festering within the school. The major achievement in the first year lay not only in the abolition of the cane, but in giving the staff confidence to use the excess of humanity they possessed. We discussed at length not only the futility of meeting violence with violence, but also the more subtle aspects of rejection which some people in our profession called training in the social graces. To gain the children's co-operation we not only had to examine our teaching methods, but also react positively by exploiting all areas of contact with the child in the learning situation. Easier said than done Unhappy children need far more than kindly words and the aesthetic appreciation of mounted paintings to feel involved. The need for active co-operation forced us to look objectively and critically at our teaching methods. I wrote many papers for staff discussion, indicating the developments I hoped might take place, but resisted the temptation to write subject syllabuses. At that time any discussions on the problems of being a teacher in this school always came back to the word discipline. Teachers would tell me how difficult it was to keep the children quiet and in their seats. Of course when you state the problems as plainly as that the solution is obvious, let them

talk and move. But the Staff at that time were not prepared to accept such a glib and facile answer. At the end of my first year five of the teachers left and were replaced, with one valuable exception, by youngsters fresh from college.

The change began when a young teacher asked me to help her replan her room to see whether this could help in the problems she was facing. I suggested that we move the rather large, bulky cupboards away from the wall and place them at right angles around the room to form bays. My point was that children separated from the provocation of other groups were less likely to be tempted towards verbal and physical violence. The experiment was an immediate success: within six weeks the entire staff had voluntarily converted their rooms with bays.

However, this was the very thin end of the wedge. I asked the teachers why we always thought in terms of subject lessons rather than broad bands of integrated study. Do children all have to work at the same thing at the same time? — could we not have separate activities in each bay? I helped to plan schemes of work which enabled teachers to organise their children in various learning situations. Each bay had a definite function e.g. maths bay complete with apparatus, The art and craft bay had tables and carefully labelled boxes containing paints, materials etc., While the quiet bay for written expression was flooded with books and writing materials of all kinds. At a later stage I bought carpets and chairs from the local market and rag and bone merchants to emphasise the homely aspect of the quiet bay. To encourage direct speech we placed the desks against the wall so that a child would have contact with those children sitting on either side of him. It soon became a common sight to see children sprawled on the carpet reading, apparently oblivious to all the noise and activity around them. Of course, with art and craft as one of the activities in the day it was obviously impossible and wrong to limit the movement and speech within the classroom, especially as some children were using apparatus in Maths while others were searching through and talking about books.

From these crude beginnings we established the patterns of involvement and co-operation with our children. Now the ILEA have generously equipped

us with gray storage units — to which we have added backs which extend their height to 5' — as bay dividers, 12' x 9' nylon carpets and decent armchairs for our quiet bays, linoleum for the classroom floor and sinks. We needed, and obtained, masses of consumable material of all kinds, far more than is required in a more formal setting. However, involvement and co-operation need not necessarily lead to creative activities. Perhaps at this point we should consider the act of being creative in the learning situation.

Creativity is very difficult to define in educational terms. Easier perhaps to note some of the trace elements in its make-up such as free choice, the need to talk and move, an enriched and stimulating environment, a sense of involvement with the materials and people among whom you work and the complete acceptance of the child both in his dignity and his need to rebel. Here perhaps as educationalists we might doubt whether creativity could emerge in an authoritarian, cold regime where teachers and children worked together in doubt and competition.

However, it is possible that by enlarging an imaginative experience and presenting it in a form which gives satisfaction to both the author and his audience we can claim to be creative. At Michael Faraday we see that our children have as many first hand experiences as possible. Visits, largely paid for out of a newly formed PTA Fund, have enabled us to enrich to a significant degree the nature of their experiences. Creativity demands detail in its observations and classes spend much time in the simple act of looking at their neighbourhood in an enquiring way. The demolished houses revealing patterned, faded wallpaper, fires that eat up infested wood, the feel of rain and wind on their faces, sounds, sadness, nostalgia etc. These experiences are examined afresh, not only through discussion, but in terms of drama, movement, speech, art, craft, music and sensitive poetic writing. In fact, the whole range of communication is used to define one tiny aspect of living.

We have been fortunate in having on the Staff a man who specialises in drama. From his work in movement and speech, a broad improvement in language communication can be noticed throughout the school. Topic studies involving not only the

use of books for research, but the making of costumes, the development of exciting art forms, poetry etc., culminating in dramatic production put on for other children at assembly, which incidentally the children run for themselves, are now a feature of the school. Displays of childrens work flood all the available space in halls, corridors and classrooms. Needless to say we do not attempt to evaluate this creativity through testing. It is sufficient for us that our children now rarely respond with violence to provocation, react positively in their work use their initiative and above all enjoy coming to school.

Attempts to involve parents were necessary if we were to educate their children in a creative way. They now join us for assembly (we anticipated Plowden here), come to Teach-ins where they experiment with creative materials, share in the supervision of visits and make and provide apparatus and equipment for the school. We run both a parents' and a teachers' workshop.

We have, of course only travelled a small way in our attempts to be creative. I look forward eagerly to the day when the teacher will act as a consultant and guide in assisting the choice children make in their activities, providing for them an enriched and stimulating environment to aid the maturation of social and intellectual instincts. Team-teaching with its emphasis on the child involving himself with any available adult when needing help, is now well advanced in the school; two classes have already completely merged. But above all else it is the warm humanity of a magnificent teaching staff which conditions and nourishes the act of being creative.

Coming shortly in New Era

"SCHOOLING AND THE SELF-CONCEPT"

A report by J. W. Tibble and R. L. Richer.

This is a report of a schools council project to examine adolescent attitudes and the self concept.

Physical Education from the Point of View of a Psychologist.

Notes of an address

by **Dr Ruth Frøyland Nielsen**

Being in every way a non-athletic person, exempt of physical training throughout most of my school years, being as a Norwegian a non-skier, knowing only clumsiness, inadequacy, defeat and shame as far as bodily achievement is concerned, I should be the last person to talk to teachers of physical education about just that, physical education.

On second thought, however, it occurred to me that this experience of helplessness and defeat might be the only quality which entitles me to talk of what gymnastics give and — don't give.

I should also like to thank you for the challenge which your invitation has given me, a challenge which demanded of me a search for information. It has been thrilling and I have brought some books together, a short bibliography which may be of interest to some of you.

May I add a few words about my background as an educator. For years I have been observing schoolchildren who were my responsibility. They were so called 'backward' children, intellectually. They were also physically out of balance. Did we give them the opportunities, the help, the support and the adequate challenges which they needed? As I, myself, finally met with a real and convincing understanding of my own physical dilemma and got expert help, I felt better equipped, physically and psychologically to study the physical problems of my children. — So I invited a group of specialists in the field, teachers of physical education in schools, physio-therapists, Mensendieck teachers and the like.. What struck me at first was their difficulty of communication. The difficulty seemed to stem from their different outlook and their different purpose: The school teachers were concerned with 'normal' children whose already normal bodily skills were to be developed

whereas the physio-therapists and the Mensendieck teachers were concerned with people in need of special, remedial treatment.

To me as a psychologist and to me whose weak ankle was regarded as a mere trifling, to me the question arose as to whether this was not an artificial division. I asked myself how many absolutely healthy, absolutely normal children, physically, there is in one single so-called normal class? And how many pupils are there with just such a trifling, with an un-noticed anomaly who is trained to live up to the standards of the agile, **graceful, strong standardbearer of the class and their model teacher?** Finally, — even if each one of all the pupils is normal, I mean healthy and strong in every way, that means that she or he is normal according to her or his **type**, meaning the size and build of each single one.

A few words from a well known sports trainer gives us a glimpse of just this problem in a book from 1937: C. Collins writes:- 'The capable sports trainer knows that a short, squarely built person needs a different kind of training as compared to a tall, leptosomous one.'

This single statement forces upon us a new kind of examination of the children in our care and a physical training which is quite different from the uniform treatment, we know only too well.

This is your field — but it is also mine! And, in order to introduce the psychological point of view, I should like to start by quoting some of the conclusions which a group of highly competent psychologists, psychiatrists and others published in a report of their work during the XVII International Congress of Psychology in Washington DC, 1963. The little book is called 'The Body Percept'. Two of the contributors, **Seymour Fisher** and **Sidney Cleveland** write as follows:

'With increasing study of body image phenomena we have learned that the **normal individuals**' (**emphasis mine**) attitude towards his body may mirror important aspects of his identity. An individual's feeling that his body is big or small, attractive or unattractive, strong or weak, may tell us a good deal about his self concept or his

typical manner of relating to other people. As such, this body image or body concept frequently serves as a screen or target upon which projects significant personal feelings, anxieties and values. 'They go on to say that . . .' one of the simplest of perceptual perimeters, namely **size**, has proven to have exciting possibilities as a means of measuring body image attitudes.' When we read this, we nod our heads, this is something we all know from proper experience. But, — are we able to **decenter** ourselves as the great Swiss psychologist, Jean Piaget would say, so as to know that others feel the same? Do we really grasp this where others are concerned, especially when we talk of and deal with children?

If we are really concerned, we shall need to know how the body percept, how the bodily security or lack of it develops.

Kagan and Moss have demonstrated with unusual clarity the continuity and consistency of body attitudes. They have shown that the degree of fearfulness about one's body in adulthood is significantly correlated with the level of such fearfulness in early childhood. Furthermore, they found that early body anxiety appears to have the consequence of encouraging certain longterm modes of behaviour. For example, boys with high body anxiety were found to avoid athletic activities and to invest an increasing proportion of their time in intellectual tasks. We should like to add one little question: What about children who have this body anxiety and no gift for intellectual compensation?

But, let us start at the beginning: What do we know of early childhood which may be relevant to our problems?

The old question of heritage and environment pops up, of course, — the influences during pregnancy, birth, birth injuries, and, according to some psycho-analytic theory there is a birth trauma to consider. We know something about these points which were unknown when I started my studies some 40 years ago. Shall we agree not to go into those details today and start with the newborn healthy vigorous children? Even so we shall have more than enough on our hands!

We hear the birth cry of the newborn babies and

know — should know that sound in all its variations is a vital part of life. We see them through our mind's eyes, little wriggling babies, breathing twisting their faces, winking their eyelids, screaming, sucking and — when they are well cared for, sinking into sleep — till their bodies crave for new care. — While enumerating these few modes of behaviour, we are witnesses of bodily needs, expressions of bodily activities and the constant accompaniment, the **emotions**. We witness the inborn rhythm in all these activities. Little by little these expressions are both co-ordinated and differentiated.

Even though John B. Watson's theories about the fundamental emotions in man have been challenged and modified by later investigators, I find it useful to call to mind his theories.

Let us first hear Ernest Hilgard's introduction to Watson's theories — 'The chief characteristic of emotions is not their conscious coloring but the stirred-up state of the organism. . . . Visceral responses, prominent in emotion, can be studied as such. Many of the processes involved in emotion, are **unconscious or un verbalized** . . .' While we keep in mind this statement about emotions, let us recall the three emotional outlets which Watson has distinguished: — 'Our conclusions are,' he writes, that the human infant shows **fear** . . . in the presence of loud, sharp sounds and **when support or balance is suddenly disturbed**.

The one situation which from birth will call out the response of **rage**, is interference with the infant's activity. Holding the head, legs or trunk, will almost invariably call it out.

The third emotional outlet which Watson distinguishes, is the reaction when the baby's body is stroked, **the pleasure reaction**.

Later investigators have found that it is impossible to distinguish clearly between the different emotional expressions which Watson stressed, not at all in the new-born infant. Katherine Bridges who has given much time to study of babies, finds that an undifferentiated excitement is the only emotional outlet that can be observed at birth. But she continues: — ' . . . specific emotions emerge from a general state of

excitement or agitation in a rather definite and orderly developmental sequence. At about 3 weeks of age, distress characterized by:

- 1 **muscular tension**
- 2 **checked breathing** and
- 3 **crying**

can be distinguished. **Delight**, manifested by smiles and cooing while being nursed or patted, becomes differentiated at 3 months, and **laughter** occurs at about 4 months.'

What strikes us in the first place, is the intimate **relationship between bodily activity and emotion**. Secondly we note the **sequences** which follow a very strict pattern in all kinds of life development. It is far more important to watch the sequences than to take note of exact statements of age. Everybody who has experience with growing children will know that there are many variations within what we call normal development.

Before we return to Watson, I should like to draw attention to an emotional outlet which neither Katherine Bridges nor Watson give the priority which it deserves, namely, the **gurgling, cooing, babbling** which accompanies the infant's bodily activities, when they lie, kicking their legs, flailing their arms, wriggling their trunks, all of which seems also to be expressions of great happiness.

Now, even while we note Katherine Bridge's modifications of Watson's theories, I should like to go back to some of the items which he mentioned and which also, according to Bridges differentiate and accentuate themselves during the first or second years of life. Let us examine them in greater detail.

Body movements are spontaneous, of the kind that we used to call reflexes. They are constantly repeated and seem to be of an absolutely stereotyped kind: the same movement again and again. But — the vigilant observer will notice the very slight changes which indicate that the initial comportment is being modified by some unforeseen change in the baby, itself and/or in the environment: The arm flailing vividly in the air happens to touch the fence of the crib: **Oh!** or, the hand and fingers have curled around something that touches the palm of the hand — and it

proved to be a cold, wet sponge! This gives rise to new forms of activity, to modifications, little by little to explorations, in time even to experimentations, to an effort of evading unpleasant experiences.

Piaget gives some exquisite examples in his book: **The Origins of Intelligence**. I should like to tell you of one of them. — The baby is lying in a basket. There is a hood on the basket, covered with some transparent, curtain material so that one may, at times observe the child's behaviour through the material of the hood. A brightly coloured doll is suspended from this hood and the baby has, for days on end, been watching the doll with great interest, the interest showing in rapturous movements of the whole body, in the shining eyes and an infectious gurgling and babbling. The vivid movements make the basket — and the doll — move too — which again unleashes renewed vigorous activity. One day the father-psychologist comes stealthily into the room and observes the baby through the hood of the crib. The baby is lost in a new occupation, — it is studying its hands and fingers which, at this stage, the child is able to bring up in front of the face. The psychologist gives a jolt to the basket so that the doll begins to dance. Now the baby looks up at the doll, but very briefly, and, says **Piaget**, makes a slight movement with one hand as though it would say: 'Oh yes, I know about the doll,' and then the child returns to its previous occupation, studying hands and fingers.

It is continuously fascinating to follow all these modifications which represent a definite pattern and at the same time show a multitude of facets and variations in time and in form, all of which belong to what we consider the so-called normal, human development.

You remember that, a moment ago I gave a sudden exclamatory outburst an **Oh!** in order to illustrate another aspect of the child's bodily activity, a sign which implies both an audible expression of **breathing** — and of **vocalization**. We have a tendency to forget this audible part of an otherwise bodily activity. A childhood memory gives an illustrative example. I was brought up in the United States and the Indians were held up to us as examples: An Indian never cries, whatever the pain! My little brother had learnt this

lesson even better than his two older siblings.

One day he got his finger terribly pinched and turned a chalky white. My mother who had seen the accident and saw the boy's face, called out: — 'Scream, darling!' The little boy had learnt his lesson too well — and fainted! The physio-therapist knows about 'vocalization', the implied breathing and repercussions on pain. Do teachers of gymnastics know the importance of vocalization — in pain and in pleasure?

I have been using these very dry, theoretical expressions like 'vocalization,' 'children's activities' and the like deliberately in order to study the phenomena in so-called strictly observational, scientific language. Sometimes this helps us to present things clearly, precisely.

We have however, other and more human, more **living** words which help us complete our neutralized observations. Our everyday word for children's activities is **play**. All of the items which we have considered, are implied in this word, all of them and even more. We shall add a few of these other ones.

The Viennese child psychologist, Charlotte Bühler, distinguishes four different forms of play, — and I shall first give her own, German words. She talks of 1. Funktionsspiel, 2. Rollenspiel, 3. Konstruktionsspiel and 4. Rezeptionsspiel, all of which are more or less mixed up with one another. — The fundamental play which we have been considering here, is the 'function play'. Two Swiss educators, **Mina Audemars** and **Louise Lafendel** used to describe this first and fundamental sort of play as '**movement for the sake of movement**' or, perhaps better, — '**Activity for the sake of activity**'. While pondering these problems, I have been led to describe Funktionsspiel in my own childish way: **activity is activity is activity because in this way**, I avoid the telological, the finalistic aspect which may be detrimental to our understanding. And in a way this description illustrates the children's functioning better than the others activity is activity is activity. At least I think so!

We shall borrow another 'label' from Vienna, from Charlotte's husband, the late **Karl Bühler**, who was a very great psychologist in his own

right. Discussing children's play, Karl Bühler talks of '**Funktionslust**,' — that means, **delight, joy in functioning**. We have all felt the impact of this while talking of the baby in the crib. And this joy, delight, happiness is an important point to keep in mind. It is important, fundamentally important *per se*. But this joy is both a **delight of the moment** and an **impetus for further activity** and implies the incomparable satisfaction of achievement, represented for instance in the child's happiness when he arrives at standing upright on his own chubby legs!

I sometimes ask my students **when this kind of play vanishes**. They look up at me, dumbfounded trying to remember what is said in the books. I wonder whether it is really mentioned in their textbooks. Then they sigh with relief, as they say: '**Never**'. They think of dancing, skiing, running, jumping. — But then, why do we label this kind of play elemental? Because this kind of activity dominates the life of small children but takes up less and less time as we grow older. Alas!

While we listen to the student's **Never**, the biblical saying comes to mind, the one about becoming like children again, — or as the Spanish philosopher, **Miguel de Unamuno**, wrote: — 'Unless you preserve in yourselves, your childhood, this flower of the soul, you will not find any heaven on earth'. (*Celui qui ne garde pas en lui, son enfance fleur de l'ame ne trouvera pas de ciel sur la terre*).

It occurs to me that Don Miguel might have said this to you because you have embraced the task of developing (conserving?) what started out as function play and function joy. Unless we preserve both, neither we nor our children shall find some heaven on earth . . .

There are, however, other factors which we must be aware of; factors which may further a healthy and happy development and make our tasks as educators easy — but which may also have nefarious and irreclaimable effects on our pupils. The point I am coming to is the one we noted for further study, I mean to the quietening effect of being held and caressed. Everybody who has taken care of babies, knows this, — in fact, we

know this effect at all stages of life. But the vigilant, the alert observer will have noted that some people do not have this effect on children, nor on you and me, for that matter. Some adults have stiff bodies, strained breathing, clumsy hands.

Margaret Mead has shown the difference in handling small children in three primitive societies. According to her observations, the difference seems to be due, not to conscious, deliberate attitudes but much more to the traditions prevailing in the different societies. Dr. Mead finds that the different ways of treating the small children give rise to certain types of people. In the cases where the babies have been subject to a strict, businesslike treatment with hurried feeding and no leisurely, cozy fondling, the people are rigid, hard, nervous, jumpy, unfriendly. What about their body posture, their breathing, their movements? — In striking contrast to this Mundugumor personality, **Margaret Mead** describes the relaxed, friendly, tender attitude of the Arapesh community.

Some of the psychoanalytically oriented psychologists, above all, **Erik Homburger Erikson**, shows similar traits in our so-called Western culture as a result of early childhood treatment. A child who has been handled in a warm, relaxed way will acquire what Erikson terms **Basic trust**. This basic trust has a fundamental influence on posture which for you and me implies breathing, security — and grace which is a bit of the same thing — in movement. For Erikson this is all characteristic of the healthy, secure, courageous personality.

There is one more effect which I should like to mention and which is not always recognized. The Norwegian psychiatrist, **Trygve Braatøy** writes of something which he calls 'Echo-technique' in psychotherapy and also gives details of '**Echo-effect**,' ideas which are relevant to our problems here and now. We all know of such effects in our daily life: — if we start whispering, the other people present will soon follow suit! The psychiatrist tells us that this effect is present in different situations. A person's way of breathing may be contagious. We may easily test this, for instance if we feel ill at ease with a person.

Whose breath, whose posture, whose colour is affected — and who affects the other one? If then we, ourselves are able to breath deeply, we may not only relieve our own tension but probably also release the stiff posture and halted breathing of the other person present. The psychiatrist knows this and this knowledge is behind the treatment on the couch. The supine position is in itself 'a prelude to treatment.' There should always be a very good chair for a client! But one should not mention the idea which made one buy such a chair! Dr. Braatøy writes again: ' . . . If one asks a person with a 'tied-up breathing' to breathe, this person will start with all his will power to breathe as well as he can. This means extra tension of the respiratory muscles which are already overstrained. The more he concentrates on this task, the more this person, out of good will, 'pull himself together and the worse it gets . . . '

We are anticipating things and there are still some psychological points to be made before we go on to the questions of treatment, — I mean teaching. . :

Let us go back to Watson and his observations of emotional outlet in children, their fear when support or balance is disturbed and their rage when activity is inhibited by other people. We all know something about loss of balance. Do we remember when we were taken into an elevator for the first time? Or when we walk down a staircase and there is a step more than we were prepared for? Or a step less . . . We were caught 'off balance' as we say.

Other psychologists have made observations concerning the same point. Charlotte Bühler mentions very precisely that you cannot test a small child if it is in a precarious bodily position, liable to lose support. **Arnold Gesell** always took great care when he studied infants and small children. They were always placed in a solid comfortable armchair and the very small ones were given extra support so as not to bend over or fall forwards. Braatøy tells of small babies of about 3 months of age who are well able to raise their heads and shoulders when they are lying face down. They have also developed what he calls the 'social smile' in reply to mother's or

father's smile. But if a child is lying on its tummy and raises its head and the mother or father smiles, the baby falls forward and bumps its face on the mattress. The baby is unable to do both things at the same time — at that age. And balance is apparently a *sine qua non*.

As for the second reaction made by Watson, the rage reaction when body movements are hindered, **Hildegard Hetzer** and **Käthe Wolf** have observed that babies already in their first month of life, tend to rid themselves of towels or cardboard lids which are placed over their bodies. In the beginning, their reactions are, of course inadequate. But the two Viennese psychologists have repeated the situations all through the first year and seen that this reaction appears in all normal children.

Later on we have all observed how happy children are when they take off their clothes and are freed of all interference with bodily activity.

Before we go on to our next point, let us just mention the social influence on bodily attitudes and activities. Fisher and Cleveland whom we have mentioned before, write that 'body attitudes are often the result of and reflections of interpersonal relationships' and our evaluation of ourselves and our bodies which we mentioned to begin with are often influenced by and emphasized by the opinions of other people, and sometimes again exaggerated by the person in question, himself. Stress, sorrows, humiliations and depressions also have effect on posture breathing and bodily activity as we all know and as psychiatrists can tell us about in detail.

A Spanish psychiatrist, **J. de Ajuriaguerra** brings in still another point which we shall look at even though it can only be briefly. He emphasizes 'the interdependence of cognitive and affective activities in the organization of perception and cognition of the body . . . the very specific character of the cognitive activity . . . leads to the knowledge of the body . . . and the affective repercussions of this activity are much greater than those of activities which are concerned with the external world. It is not surprising . . . that the affective value of the different parts of the

adult's body is tied up with the past history of these parts, and in particular to the affective repercussions which characterized the acquisition of knowledge of them . . . ' (emphasis by me).

Dr. Ajuriaguerra has thus introduced two points, first and foremost the cognitive or intellectual one. — No psychologist has demonstrated this point more vividly, more detailed than the Swiss psychologist, **Jean Piaget**. He shows how spontaneous bodily movements release intellectual activity, even from the very first day of life even though we must say that this activity is, to begin with, 'En état de virtualité' as the French would say, perhaps you would say 'in embryo'.

Let me borrow a couple of his examples in order to show what he means. — From the very first day, the infant curls his hands and fingers around whatever touches the inside of his hand. This is a reflex activity and repeats itself again and again without end. While doing this and without any kind of intentionality the baby gathers a lot of different experiences — dimly of course — but all the same, certain things are agreeable to the touch, other things are not, some lend themselves to the closing hand, some are very disagreeable, as for instance, a cold, wet sponge. In our adult terms, we might say that the tiny infant thus lays the first foundation for what is to become discrimination, classification, systematization, activities which we recognize as intellectual. — We remember the baby in his crib and the doll suspended under the hood and the baby's vigorous activity in front of this fascinating thing. Piaget then tells us that this reaction — after a certain time — changed. The child was still interested in the doll and continued the vigorous movements which made the doll dance. But there was a slight difference, so slight that Piaget remarks that it was difficult to discern convincingly. Constantly renewed observation led him to conclude that the child, somehow, was studying what was going on. The baby made the usual movements, then stopped and watched the doll attentively, then moved again. The difference in comportment between the initial undifferentiated movement and the new one was:

1. the interruption between the wriggling and

the observation,

2. the changed expression of eyes and face which was now serious and definitely attentive and
3. there was no babbling and gurgling.

Again one would ask in adult terms whether this was a kind of first study of cause and effect.

Piaget's further studies show how physical activity brings in new insight and new problems of space, time, causality, relationships and the like. He concludes that intelligence implies a twofold activity, — an **assimilation** of the world (implying the proper body) and an **accommodation** to this same world, activities which are pursued simultaneously while they excite and control each other reciprocally all the time.

It might be interesting to go further into detail but for our purposes, this must suffice.

Let us go back to de Ajuriaguerra and the second point that we quoted: — 'the affective value of the different parts of the adult's body (which) is tied up with the past history of these parts . . . 'While he looks back from the adult to the child, we must look the other way, from our children, our pupils forward to what they are going to be as adults, not as athletes, as champions but as people who are secure, **bodily secure** with all the details which that implies — a fascinating perspective, a challenge which at times may become slightly frightening.

There is a question which is lurking in the background of our thoughts, a question, a counterquestion which we must take up and try to solve, with the knowledge available. And if we don't have adequate knowledge, this is in itself a challenge. The mentioning of the question, is already something . . .

Do we have any data which show that a hampered physical development may be detrimental to intellectual activity and development? There is very little psychological material to draw upon for information. I should like to mention an investigation made by Nissen, Chow and Semmes. The subject of the study was a baby chimpanzee whose hands and feet were encased in cylinders for 30 months and in such a way as to prevent any normal experiences through the use of hands and feet. Here are some of the main conclusions at the end of the experiment:

- a. walking and sitting posture were abnormal.
- b. grooming behaviour . . . was lacking,
- c. as was the almost universal tendency to cling to the human attendant when picked up,
- d. when the normal chimpanzee is touched lightly at some point of the body, the usual response consists of promptly bringing both hands to the locus of stimulation . . . these responses were lacking or abnormally slow and inaccurate.
- e. great difficulty in learning to differentiate between tactile stimulation of the right and left hand when vision was excluded.

There are no follow up studies of this study so we don't know whether the animal can retrieve what it had been deprived of. So the study does not give us any information from which to make an hypothesis.

It is difficult for some of us to read of that kind of investigations and we shrink at the mere thought of similar experiments with human children.

Unfortunately nature presents us with tragic cases which may give us helpful material and information — while such children get as competent help as possible. — I am thinking of children who have been put in plaster during their first year of life because of dislocation of the hips and other anomalies, — children with eye-injuries and other illnesses who have been kept in darkness, often with sandbags to prevent them from moving their heads. Further we have the cerebral palsied children.

Studies of such children have primarily been conducted within hospitals and there taken up from a medical and strictly physiotherapeutic points of view. The psychologists have mainly been interested in perceptual studies and in problems of an emotional character. One might get glimpses from such studies but, as far as I have been able to find out, very little would be of interest to us.

There are two observations which were given to me by the psychologist at our main institute for C/P (cerebral palsied) children. One concerns the trouble which seems to be a constant problem for the physiotherapists. The C/P children tend to sit down, **sink down** to a sitting position which is very much like the one

we observed in the chimpanzee baby. In this position the children have to bend their thighs outwards to a position which tends to produce a dislocation of the hip joint. In spite of intense work and admonitions from the physio-therapist, it seems as though the children 'cannot help themselves.'

Another point which seems relevant to our earlier considerations, is one which was made by this eminent psychologist, **Margrethe Landmark**. She told me that all the children showed a constant pre-occupation which they expressed whenever there was a question of animals, furniture, and what not: — '**Can it stand? —!!**' Our thoughts go immediately to one of the items which we mentioned before, that of bodily balance. Those children know what it means to be able to stand and to keep their balance — or what it means when you can't!

There are other tragedies which may give us, if not real information, then some indications of important points to be studied. I have had the opportunity of following the development of a little girl, subject to the effects of thalidomide. She has deformed legs from the knees down, a finger on her left shoulder and on the other some remnant of what should have been her right arm. She is now five years old. When she first came for professional treatment, at the age of one year and a half, her parents brought her in a bag. 'There was no need for sleeves or stockings and shoes. The wonderful nursery school teacher to whose care she was entrusted, **Helga Olsen**, soon found out that the child had no real knowledge of her own body. In a playful way, the girl got to know that she had that finger. She had legs and learnt to use her feet, particularly her toes instead of her lacking hands. This is intensely interesting but very special and thus gives us few cues for our work.

There are some other practices which have been briefly explored but which should be studied more closely. I am alluding to the practices which we know of from earlier days in our own countries and which still exist in some cultures: — the babies in Lappish communities in Northern Finland, Sweden, and Norway are kept in wooden boxes (**komse**) during infancy where they cannot move their limbs freely. Similar

practices are found with the Eskimos, with the American Indians and in other cultures. Charlotte Bühler made a study of such children in the Balkans and found that they soon learned to use their bodies just as well as other children who had never been thus confined. But she told me recently that the children seemed to be retarded. — I should like to quote what Wayne Dennis writes about Hopi children who are tied to a wicker tray at birth: — 'The cradle board is employed very assiduously for the first three months, the child being taken off the board only for cleaning and bathing, acts which combined do not occupy more than an hour daily. After three months, the straightness of the child's back is assured and the mother may discard the cradleboard whenever she pleases. Actually, its use is seldom discontinued before the child is six months of age and it rarely is employed beyond the first year of life. **The duration of the cradle usage depends in part upon the restlessness of the child and in part upon his motor development. If a child becomes restless on the board, he is freed earlier than would otherwise be the case.** If he walks precociously, he is taken from the board at an early age, for the board is seldom used after the child begins to walk.' (The sentences emphasised by me.) — In this last quotation we get a glimpse of shades of personalities and of variations in the treatment of children within an, otherwise strictly traditional culture. But, they are mere glimpses which provoke us and call for precise studies based on a great variety of questions and observations.

In summing up, one might want to stop and look at some precise points for us to hold on to.

In the first place, some people might want to know about stages and periods, age limits and so forth.

As for the question of stages, I shall have to refer you to the first title on my list of references, the one called:- 'Le probleme de stades en psychologie de l'enfant'. This is a report on a symposium held in Geneva in 1955 with representatives of paediatrics, child psychiatry, psychologists of 'different denominations' and others. They studied the different 'stage systems' which have been elaborated and tried to find common 'denominators,' features which might show

a certain convergence between physical and psychological developments. The participants found out that there was no convincing convergences, even between ossification, dentition and other physical traits, — let alone convergence between these physical traits and the psychological ones. The psychologists even did not find any absolute and common foundations. The final conclusion was that we need manysided studies, co-operation and further studies.

There are three points which I should like to make though:

1. Instead of pinning certain features to precise ages, it is important to keep one's eyes — one's minds eyes too — open and observe **sequences** in the development, for signs which indicate that something new may be on its way and so give stimuli which the child may manipulate, may grasp and use at once — or only little by little. But — while we study these trends generally and individually, it is important to keep in mind what the psychoanalysts tell us of **regression**, the return to more primitive more infantile behaviour in periods of stress. Piaget uses another expression which may seem similar to regression but which really is quite different. He speaks of what he calls '**décalage**' which means that we tend to go back to more primitive behaviour while we explore, manipulate new situations, new materials, new developments also in and with our own bodies. When we get to know and master the new problems, we may use them in a more constructive, that is a more mature way.

2. My second point regards something which Diana Jordan said:- Study and work with little children has been very fruitful because we have seen that one cannot **instruct** little children. We can prepare the situation. The children will use this situation and the material according to their own capacities and whims. As a former nursery school teacher, I cannot agree more!

But, — a 'but' is lurking in my mind as I recall what the observations of Margaret Mead, Erik Erikson and others have taught us about the **unconscious influence of rigorous handling**, of arrested breathing and the like. Some children carry with them the effect of such influences from their very earliest life experiences. This

may remedy itself in the course of development and through understanding handling. We must, however, be alert to the fact that such inhibitions or twisted development may be hidden and show themselves in what we may regard as exaggerated anxiety, apathy etc. They may also break forth unexpectedly in 'silly' or compulsive laughter, in crying, in unaccountable fear. And here I should like, once more to allude to the echo effect and echo-treatment.

3. My third point regards the period which we use to call puberty and adolescence. Up till puberty, any student of child development will tell us that children in the so called latency period, are healthier, more harmonious and physically stronger than ever in their whole life time. They can, roughly speaking, do whatever they want to do. And then come the changes, the internal changes and the external ones which disturb the whole equilibrium. We know the expression which has been coined: **the growth spurt** I think it is called so in English. The growth is in itself a strength consuming affair. — Secondly it is disharmonious, — growth of arms, legs, trunk do not match each other and the body becomes extremely difficult to handle. Some young people get desperately fat and clumsy. Many boys and girls get spots and pimples. Clothes don't fit. Some don't grow fast enough and remain childish both in looks, and in outlook.

I have not gone into the special problems of boys and girls at these stages, I mean the sexual development which we hear so much about. In connection with what we are studying here, I find it more important to stress the transition from un-selfconscious strength, harmony, balance to self-conscious insecurity, tiredness that one cannot quite account for one-self, the feeling of ugliness. Here is more to study and to do than just to call out to the youngsters that they should straighten their backs, as all too many educators have done — and do.

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CORRESPONDENCE

Personal Relationships

Dear Madam,

With reference to previous correspondence about pupil counselling, you may like to know that work in 'Personal Relationships' is being encouraged in schools in Kent and that an introductory conference was held in November 1967 to consider the need for the establishment of courses of training in this field with consideration given to curriculum content and ways in which this work could be developed in schools. Another conference will be held in 1968 and it is hoped to establish training courses for teachers in the future.

Yours faithfully,

John Haynes
 County Education Officer for Kent.

Note. See page 118 about a WE Counselling Conference in London.

Movement with Mentally Handicapped Children

From a student teacher's notebook
by **Carmel Cassidy***

*The writer was on a second teaching practice (i.e. the middle one, since they have three in all) in her second year on a two year course. The official title of this course is The National Association for Mental Health Course for Teachers of Mentally Handicapped Children. You will therefore see that she was **not** at Bristol Training College.

This particular course is run in Bristol and there are only three others in the country.

The children concerned in the notes are excluded from the educational system owing to the severity of their handicap, and come instead under the care of the local health authorities.

Miss Cassidy got her diploma in the summer of 1967 and is now working in a Junior Training School in Enfield (N.B. this is the official wording, which might possibly be misleading since it does not indicate the 'educational' element which undoubtedly exists in many such centres.

THE CLASS

Problem children names in bold type

Elizabeth (16). Used to attend an ESN school, but unable to make the grade. A large, plump girl, fairly agile.

Linda M. (14). A tall thin girl — extremely apathetic.

Linda H. (14). Very spoilt girl, **extremely** heavy, much difficulty in moving.

Sandra (13). From a very large family, very disturbed. Constant difficulty with her in school and on the ambulance. Speech good — mostly abusive, though. Very active.

Jenny (12). Very tall for her age. Lifeless girl physically.

Derek (15) Very strong boy — aggressive quite a grown man really. The other children are scared of him at times.

David (13). A spastic boy — no speech whatsoever — comprehension perfect. Walks very slowly with help.

Roger (13). High grade mongol boy. Active and energetic.

John (13). From a very bad home, extremely disturbed: constant outbursts of aggression, disturbing the entire class. He has been completely out of control during the past term, with **Sandra**, who is his friend. Together they have upset teachers and destroyed equipment. They need a very firm hand.

Richard (13). A coloured boy from a family of thirteen. Very bad home life. Affection shown constantly through aggression; requires constant attention as he upsets other children by his blows (meant in an affectionate way). Very energetic and destructive. Never joins group activities.

Ian (12). Has difficulty in making contact, although very noisy. Unexpected temper tantrums, showing violent fits of aggression.

The mental age of most of these children is between three and four. Duration of practice was 5 weeks.

The Centre is very small, with two small classrooms; one for the nursery and one for the adolescent group. There is no intermediate group. Movement sessions have to be taken in the classroom, or outside, depending on the weather. The dining room is also too small, which makes the circumstances with such a difficult and disturbed class even worse.

Their class teacher left at Christmas after a very difficult time, and the Nursery Assistant was in charge. I started on the first day working with individual children. The whole group was bored and signs of destruction were apparent. Absolutely no equipment, apart from paint, paper, endless jigsaw puzzles and odd pieces of games were available. Books were torn and the children played an old piano which was out of tune. A woodwork bench appealed to most, but there was no equipment for modelling, therefore the children just banged large nails into the bench. A sink in the room produced a wonderful mess with **Richard** in the lead. The day proved chaotic, with horror mounting on the horizon.

When I took over the class on Thursday I

felt not only ill at the thought, but terrified too. I made many alterations, introducing all my own equipment, but they were still pretty disturbed by Friday afternoon. It was very difficult to visualize this class settling down for a movement session, and my first lesson taken on Tuesday afternoon was a complete failure. The children were high spirited, showing many tendencies to have another storm. However, we quickly cleared the classroom and five out of eleven began to show some response. Linda H. and David watched, Sandra and John **vanished outside**, Richard and Ian continued with waterplay.

As they were in an explosive mood I decided to start off with high jumps, wide jumps, narrow jumps. They worked very hard indeed. We went on to lifting knees, stretching, spreading, and opening out wide, then closing, pushing, squashing, and tucking them into their tummies. They enjoyed this, and were about to continue when John and Sandra arrived back in the classroom, disturbing the whole group. An extremely difficult period followed and my first lesson had to be abandoned.

The group was beginning to improve in spite of this. They were just beginning to work a little more independently and the mornings were becoming peaceful and profitable, but the afternoon still presented many difficulties. It was too soon in the week to face another movement class and besides I was so strung up myself that not only the children needed emotional release and expression, but I did too. So I took them onto the playground for a game of ball. The only apparatus available was a climbing frame, two swings, and a slide.

Balls were very scarce, as they disappeared under the extension for adults. However, we had a disciplined and energetic game of ball for twenty minutes and we felt better afterwards. Richard did not join in, but ran wildly around the building and tried to disrupt the game from time to time by frightening the girls. He requires observation at **every second** throughout the day. David made an effort to kick the ball, but his co-ordination of limbs is very limited.

I ventured on my second movement lesson on

Thursday morning in the classroom. They were in a very explosive mood, full of energy, which I decided had to be used up. I began by re-capitulating my first lesson. We continued by improving the quality and variety of their jumps. Their response gave me terrific encouragement. Richard did not join in and had to have attention during this activity, but somehow the lesson did not suffer. I decided to work on 'landings'; springy landings with the children feeling like a bouncing rubber ball, and steady landings (statues) which they loved, especially when I tried to push them over. This led on to landing on all fours, cat-like, which caused great excitement, and we had over a twenty minute session.

During Thursday I began to establish a more friendly atmosphere in the classroom and the children were beginning to show a little more response. The movement session had given me a lot more confidence, and I began to relax with the children. Richard presented the usual difficulties and John, Sandra, Ian and big Linda were a handful in themselves. David, who is cerebral-palsied, naturally requires special attention, and the others have begun to co-operate a little. By the end of each afternoon I am physically exhausted, as there is no possibility of a break during the day.

I decided to take movement each day and try to build up a good relationship with the children. This is a time when their excessive energy can be used constructively, and also by taking it each day I might have a better hope of achievement after four weeks.

On Friday I decided to start off with 'landings' as the children had enjoyed this so much. John and Sandra proved difficult, urging the others to do the opposite of what I said: e.g. jumping **onto** the floor when I said 'Let's see how **high** can you jump?' I used this by asking them to show the others their new idea of jumping, which they took great pride in doing. We had a good session with these jumps, then twisted landings, which later the children transformed into spin turns. This developed into slow, smooth, gliding turns, which because of their lack of ability to concentrate, resulted in one crashing into another. They responded

very well to quick lively swishing turns. I tried to help them to concentrate by getting them to stand as a house and send one hand for a walk around the house, then the other hand following. This turned into a lovely game of one hand following the other with the emphasis on 'slowly'.

I found many different qualities shown in each child and the girls were particularly good at this. Roger the only mongol, concentrated for some time chasing with his hand. From here we went on to light, slow, movements of the arms, hands and fingers, and for the first time I noticed signs of imagination. We had a short session on trees with waving, bending branches and falling leaves dropping gently to the ground. They loved this and the lesson was so calm and hushed I couldn't believe it was the same class.

I wanted so much to have continuity in my sessions with them, for instance, after jumping I wanted to go on to running and jumping, then running, jumping and falling. But limited space in the classroom prevented the children doing this. I hoped to take them out for running and jumping, but falling was not possible on the concrete playground. We cleared the classroom as much as possible, first the girls had a turn and then the boys. They enjoyed doing this, and then Elizabeth suggested we tried it outside. We started off with a good run ending in wide high jumps. David moved slowly enjoying the sound of a tambour outside, and big Linda made a tremendous effort as her weight naturally restricts her. The other children now work enthusiastically but Derek tends to become over-excited, pushing the other children over. We continued with skipping, hopping backwards and forwards, sideways to the rhythm of the tambour, and the session ended with impersonations of animals. The session wasn't as enthusiastic as previous ones, but this was probably due to slight tension on my part in trying to contain them as well as providing stimulating ideas. Anyway, signs of co-operation between children were evident this week and we worked in a friendly, relaxed atmosphere. At last they seemed to have grasped the idea of working **together** on the playground, but what a struggle it was!

I had hoped to take them outside next morning, but the very bad weather prevented this and I was very disappointed. On a rainy day I always found them less enthusiastic and more restless, so we started off with fast running feet, backwards, forwards, sideways; angry feet, which proved **very successful**. I could actually feel the aggression whizzing past me. We proceeded with strong heavy feet like monsters, sticky, feet stuck to the floor, hot sharp pointed feet jumping across a red-hot floor — John was particularly good at this; he turned out to be one of the most enthusiastic members of the group. As I had introduced them to strength and lightness in moving, I thought strong physical movement was more appropriate for their mood that morning so we continued with a pretence game of wrestling. This became very popular among the boys, but Ian, who worked in isolation and never responded to any praise or encouragement, just clapped his hands in approval of the others. He is a very strange child, prone to sudden violent attacks on me or the other children and becomes strangely disturbed by any form of recognition. The session on 'strength' presented the ideal opportunity for working on the floor as they pushed each other over, and while most were in collapsed position, we went onto rolling over, which the girls objected to. The boys particularly enjoyed this, doing long straight rollings, curled rollings like little balls, which the girls began to like. Linda made a big effort to get down on her hands and knees, but rolling was beyond her capacity. John crept along slowly on all fours gradually sinking to his tummy and snaking. This was a tremendous achievement, and I realised my mistake in not having had them working on the floor earlier. They crawled and snaked to the rythm of the tambour, swam along the river using arms and legs, rolled over and crawled on their backs watching for an aeroplane passing over which was going to shoot them. This was Roger with the tambour pretending to kill them. They shrank into the floor, then as the tambour died down Derek jumped up with Elizabeth and shot the aeroplane down. Richard had been watching this in astonishment and went to Roger's assistance, when he pretended to be dead. This was the first time Richard showed any real concern for other people, but by the time Roger

responded to Richard's attention it was time to organise the classroom again. I suggested Richard went with Roger to make a model aeroplane. For the first time he left his waterplay and made his first construction: X, just two pieces of wood joined together, but it had sprung from the movement lesson and everybody came to look at Richard's aeroplane, which seemed to unearth a new Richard. He played happily with his aeroplane, but, to expect a complete change in Richard would be a very slow process.

After the achievement of Thursday, I decided to start Friday off by working on the floor. Some of the children asked for football outside again. I find this disturbing when we seem to have had some enjoyable movement sessions. As we have football every playtime anyway I decided to take movement in the morning and make it as enjoyable as possible.

First of all we had a loosening up session as gollywogs. The children were extremely stiff, so I worked with them and encouraged working in pairs to help each other. This led on to hump-backed cats and long, sleek, narrow crawling cats. I was trying to loosen them, but the lesson automatically turned into an imaginative situation in the jungle. We had wild roaring tigers; Roger was particularly good at this, also John and Sandra. Derek chose to be a hopping, mischievous monkey, while Liz, Jenny and Linda become elephants, swinging their trunks, drinking water and reaching high for fruit from the trees. David made a lovely snake, big Linda flew as a bird.

We had interchanging of animals as we went on our journey, until we came to a river, when everybody turned into fishes, except Roger, who decided to ride a horse across the river.

Although the session was short I felt that this type of moving was somewhat more meaningful to the children, and they seemed very satisfied with their efforts. Some of the children painted a group picture of their jungle which showed a considerable amount of technique. John was keen, describing a forest to the others; he had lived in the Forest of Dean for some time.

When I asked them later in the morning what

they would prefer to do — a band session, or singing, or a story — they choose 'movement again'. We used the tables and chairs for climbing apparatus and Richard became very interested in this. It was some while before he climbed up on the table, as he preferred to crawl underneath. I crawled with him, then I struggled up on to the table and asked him to support me when I jumped off. This, I think, encouraged him a little, and before long he too was jumping down. Everybody was crawling and snaking in and out of the tables, then climbing onto them, walking along and jumping down. John was terrific at this, as he gave a beautiful flying jump before landing. Richard is rapidly gaining confidence. He is a very scared child basically, which is probably his reason for fighting anyone who approaches him. He became very good at crawling and shrinking and introduced the others to sliding hands first off the tables. I provided old cushions to make this easier as the floor is quite hard. Roger used these for somersaulting. I tried hard to get an old mattress, but in vain. John is so skilful at jumping now that he causes quite a sensation in the room. He uses his knees to lift him off the table and at the same time flings his arms upwards for a split second, looking quite abandoned in mid-air. Between us we helped the other children to do this, and they learned to land more softly. I felt they could become quite expert at this, given time and proper apparatus to work with. Before I came, David (cerebral-palsied) was taken everywhere by the hand, but now he walks quite well alone and faster too. Also he has started to toilet himself, and this seems to have given him a sense of achievement and independence. We made smaller tunnels for him to crawl through by using chairs instead of tables.

On Tuesday I started off with fast shaking hands, then strong fists slashing and punching, curled up hands protecting their hamster, and star-like hands where I helped them with delicate movements of the fingers. Richard completely ignored us during this, and Ian hid under the sink. Next I thought it a good idea to continue with 'body awareness' by curling and stretching of the body. The children curled up small, tucking their heads, feet, hands, fingers and toes into their tummies, then extending, stretching and expanding outwards until they became huge,

gigantic monsters, stretching into the Heavens. Then they gradually curled and shrank again into little mice, when one partner made a little home for the other. John made a lovely shelter for Sandra and was the only child to show an understanding of providing shelter, or a place to hide away. The others were not aware of their partner in this way but by watching John and Sandra their understanding increased.

As Ian had been hidden under the sink I referred to him to give an idea of being hidden, covered, out of sight, protected and safe. Every now and then the mouse came out of his little house, but to the beating of the tambour he ran back to his home. This was the most popular piece of work among the children so far, but I was sad when Richard did not join in.

On Thursday John's accident caused so much anxiety and chaos, that by the time our activities began I was unable to cope with a movement session. Derek pushed him into a metal backed chair and he badly injured his forehead. The whole class was shocked, Derek was petrified, Richard went berserk, and Sandra would not be consoled as John is her boyfriend.

On Friday, I started with body awareness and awareness of others, but the whole group was completely strung up after Richard arrived like an explosion, descending upon every child, showing a complete unbalance of mind, acting wildly and violently and screaming so loudly that he scared the other children. I had to send the children to assembly and stay with him until he gained control of mind and body, but although he tried hard to restrain himself, there was obviously something bothering him throughout the day.

On Tuesday Derek had become so interested in a large model bridge he was building that he did not join in our movement session. I had a short session of body awareness; feet, hands, knees; and then sitting facing a partner working on facial expressions. The children taught me and gave me many new ideas here. This was an introduction again to awareness of others, and we started off by taking our partner for a walk. The partner being led closed his/her eyes, as I felt this would increase their sensitivity of

each other. To the music from 'National Dances of France' we moved, and they responded very well. This was very short, as it means watching Richard with the record player and concentrating on the group as well. Then we continued with flowing and gliding movements in pairs, gently pushing and pulling and turning their partners in different directions. We alternated between leading, and being led; and here again John, Sandra and Jenny with Roger showed very fine touch. Richard only joined in occasionally, when he was ready. I never forced him but was constantly aware of inspiring and encouraging him. This was a small achievement in itself, as previously Richard did not even remain in the classroom for more than ten minutes at a stretch. We had another apparatus session to conclude for Richard, as I felt he was rapidly gaining confidence by working with this. He usually set the tables out as he wanted them.

On Wednesday I took my last movement session with them. It was not intended to be the last, but circumstances prevented another one. As there was much activity on bridge-building in the classroom with visual aids and a huge model, I thought it a good idea to work on 'bridges'. First of all we had a loosening up session, then went on to bridge making with the children bending and crawling through. With help Roger could bend backwards and the slimmer ones managed to crawl through on their tummies. By standing with hands on each others' shoulders they formed an archway for bigger children to go through. Richard had made many 'symbolic' bows and arrows, but now he came into the group hitting the other children with these and disrupting the lesson. I quickly called him a big Indian Chief so we gathered up his followers, 5 boys and 3 girls. John played the drums as an African chief, holding it between his legs (which he had done previously) and Liz and Sandra were dancers. The Indians were hiding, waiting an opportunity to kill the big chief, and Liz and Sandra moved very well. They danced lightly to fairy music, which I played on the pipe, and heavily on their heels to the drum. They continued like this until the pipe music died away and to the slow beating of the drum they went to sleep. Then the big chief fell asleep too and began to snore heavily. Now the Indians were roused and with a shrill whistle

from Richard they rode into the colony. The African chief woke up startled, but Richard shot him down, several times of course, and John lay dead. Richard became concerned about this as John acted very well, so with the use of tambourines and drums we made up rhythms for them to dance round the dead chief. We were trying to bring him back to life for Richard's sake, who would not leave him, but Derek decided he was dead and Liz suggested we buried him. Four children — Jenny, Elizabeth, Derek and Roger — carried John out of the classroom of their own accord. Then John came running in, and we rejoiced at his wonderful return. My only regret was that I hadn't planned for this as I had to rush about organizing the story and get the instruments out, but this didn't seem to worry them a great deal. Needless to say Richard played with his bow and arrow all day.

Summary

The Teaching Practice presented a real challenge to me in many ways. I had no observation period, and no idea of the type of movement the children were used to. I had several disturbed children in one class. There was no constructive equipment in the Centre, and the lack of space made movement very difficult at the best of times. I had no help from anyone due to the lack of a class teacher, and the Supervisor's full-time job in the adult workshop. Apart from a few balls, there was no apparatus available and improvisation was necessary all the time, which inhibited their development of skills. The weather, too, presented difficulties, as we were often restricted to the classroom.

My whole Teaching Practice was a slow process of building up relationships through friendliness, and movement was invaluable here. It helped me to understand the child's emotional, physical and social handicaps much better, thereby enabling me to provide for his needs. I feel my teaching practice might have suffered a great deal more if I had not had movement sessions where the children could really use their energy constructively.

Tension on my part periodically may have caused unnecessary anxiety; but I had not only my class to think about, I felt responsibility

towards the other members of staff too, as my children could be very obtrusive at times, particularly Richard.

John showed considerable improvement in behaviour during the practice, and also he was one of my enthusiastic members of movement. Sandra presented more of a problem, as when we formed a good relationship she became very demanding, but I think in time as her confidence grew she became more independent. Ian very suddenly became responsive in the last few days. David certainly had increased his confidence and was walking better. Richard still remained my problem, but he might have improved slightly through the relationship we built together. He achieved one thing which was very noticeable, and that was closing a door quietly. Also he succeeded in joining in a group activity for a few minutes at a time.

Although it was an extremely difficult practice, it was a worthwhile experience.

CORRESPONDENCE

Dear Miss Fisher,

The University of Keele/Schools Council **Integration of the Humanities Curriculum Development Project** began work on January 1st 1968. The Project is taking a wider-than-usual look at the problems and possibilities of an integrated humanities curriculum. It is concerned with the entire secondary age range, pupils of all abilities, and a definition of the Humanities that includes the expressive subjects as well as the traditional academic disciplines.

The initial responsibility of the Project is to collect information on current practice in the schools, and in particular to identify the principles underlying the restructuring of Humanities courses now being tried in the schools. It would help if schools experimenting in this field contacted the Project at the above address. Although we would be very interested to hear of work directed towards the needs associated with the raising of the school leaving age, we are particularly anxious to hear of integrated or inter-discipline courses operating at other age and ability levels, including the sixth form. We would also be interested to hear of any difficulties experienced, or doubts entertained. At a later stage in the Project, trial curricular material will be produced for evaluation in schools.

Other institutes or organisations having a point of view on curriculum development in the Humanities are invited to contact the Project. We are interested in the entire range of possible involvement, from proved schemes to clear but untried ideas.

Yours faithfully,

David Bolam (Director of Project).
David Jenkins (Assistant Director).

Tomorrow's Education:
the French Experience

Jean Capelle
Translated by W. D. Halls.
Pergamon Press and Presses Universitaires de France,
1967.
xvi + 229 pp. Hard cover 35s, Flexi-cover 25s.

History Syllabuses
and a World Perspective

Alethea Lyall (Editor)
A comparative survey of examination syllabuses in
Britain and overseas.
Longmans and Parliamentary Group for World
Government.
2nd revised edition, 1967. xvi + 171 pp.

Both books are packed with information. The first, by Jean Capelle, formerly Rector of the University of Nancy and Director of School Organization and Programmes in the French Ministry of Education, 1961-4, assumes at least an outline knowledge of the development of the French educational system from the instigation of the grandes écoles by Napoleon and the introduction of free primary schooling in 1881 to the raising of the leaving age to 16 under the ordinance of 16th January 1959.

Many readers of the *New Era* will have vivid memories of meetings with Paul Langevin and Henri Wallon immediately after the war. For two or three years this journal reflected the excited expectations of those who worked to cultivate through education a new kind of patriotism. The September-October 1946 *New Era* in fact printed Langevin's address to the NEF. European conference held at the Sorbonne that summer; the January 1947 number contained a report of the first general conference of Unesco also held in Paris, and a moving obituary of Langevin by J. A. Lauwerys.

In effect Capelle presents a study of the fate of the recommendations of the Langevin Report during the twenty years since it appeared in June 1947, and since the introduction of the "sixièmes nouvelles". In one sense it is heartening that a report of fifty odd pages should have had such far reaching repercussions; in another it is dispiriting that a report of such influence should have emanated from marxists and psychologists whose notions about the aims and philosophy of education is severely limited. Indeed Capelle's background at Nancy, an industrial and military centre, would seem to colour his own pronouncements.

For example he regards education primarily as providing 'facilities for advancement' so that every individual can 'be happiest where he will be best qualified' (p. 18). For what purpose, one may ask? — may not a bomber pilot be happy and well qualified without questioning the value of his pursuit? We are told (p. 98) that 'general education will have to be strongly imbued with values drawn from the vast economic and social reality which is embodied in technical progress'. Has the author read, one wonders, Whitehead's chapter on Technical Education in his *Aims*, or the appendix to the *Spens Report* on the concept of liberal education? We are told (p. 200) that the scientific prestige of a university is measured by its number of Nobel prizewinners and, with approval, (p. 223) that 'the society of mankind is increasingly launched upon the rough road of competition'.

From such premisses it is small wonder that the emphasis in this book is on the quantitative increase in educational institutions of all kinds in order to give greater 'opportunities' to ever increasing numbers. The quotations perhaps suggest how far Capelle is from the sentiments of those soon-to-be-hackneyed figures of Edmond Leach and of R. D. Laing (*The Politics of Experience*) in this country.

Capelle's comparisons with educational systems outside France include U.S.A. but more frequently are made with Czechoslovakia, Roumania, U.S.S.R. and Yugoslavia. With regard to Great Britain, the *Robbins Report* is held up as a model of methodology, but no mention made of *Crowther's Report*, nor the works of Vaisey, Glass or Jean Floud. His Figures on the French scene nevertheless provide interesting facts —

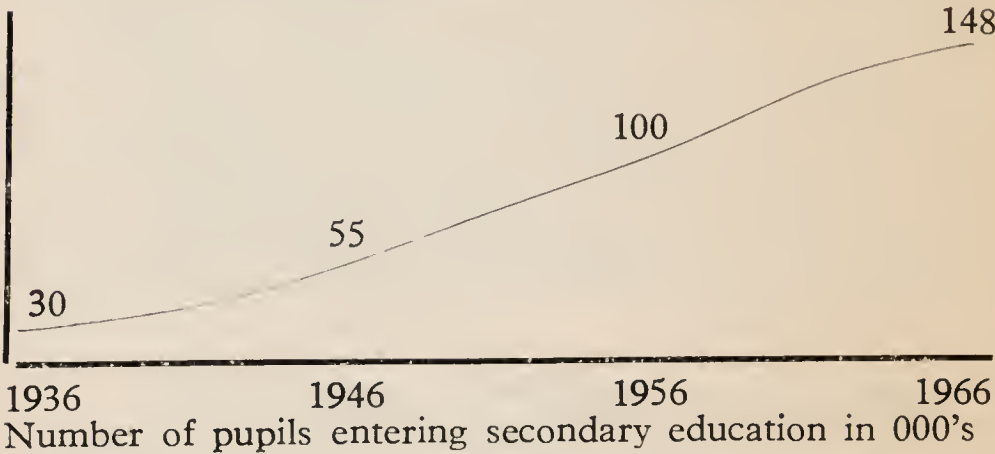


Fig. 4

Percentage of age cohort passing the academic secondary leaving examination, i.e. Baccalauréat; Abitur; G.C.E. A level etc.

	Actual (1963)	Forecast (1970)
Norway	17	22
France	17	19
Ireland	16	24
Sweden	14	22
Belgium	12	15
Italy	10	13
Denmark	8	12
D.D.R.	8	8
England	7	9
Netherlands	7	9

Table 1
from introduction by W. D. Halls.

Percentage of age group in all forms of full time education (1963)

	Over 15	16	17	18	19	20
England	62.1	29.0	16.6	9.9	7.5	7.4
France	56.8	49.0	34.9	23.6	16.4	11.3

Table 2
from Introduction by W. D. Halls.

Percentage of age cohort in universities (1963-64)

	17	18	19	20
England	—	1.8	2.8	3.5
France	1.1	3.4	6.0	7.0

Table 3
from Introduction by W. D. Halls.

Despite the two-fold increase in numbers of lycée pupils (Fig. 4) it is pointed out that their social origins remained proportionately the same during the twelve years following the Langevin report, that is to say they were an inverted image of the population structure (children of land workers, industrial workers and civil servants etc.).

A part of the report that has been implemented since 1959 is the fourfold division of schooling, namely

- 3—7 Écoles maternelles
- 7—11 Elementary
- 11—15 Orientation — or guidance, or diagnostic — in a common school
- 16—18 'Determination' or maturity schools

The great implication of this is to treat the 11-15 year stage in a comprehensive fashion; and by truncating the old lycées to convert them into what the English would call sixth form colleges or senior schools under the Mason-Leicestershire plan. Throughout it is emphasized that for the sake of homogeneity no school should have more than 600 pupils.

Though in Table 3 the percentage of English university students appears to be about half that of the French, it must be pointed out that 60% of the latter fail to complete their degree and that though the English only accept 40% of those with the minimum A level qualification, in the end they turn out as many graduates as in France. To combat sheer overcrowding, the French 1966 reforms will introduce selection for the universities instead of allowing automatic entry, as by right, of any holder of the baccalauréat.

Langevin had advocated that all teachers should hold a degree. How this is to come about is a controversial question: the present trend is that they should take Part I of a degree course (2 years) followed by pedagogical training (1 year) and thus qualify for a BA. The MA is to be awarded to other students who take Part II of the degree course. Though such an arrangement would unify professional qualifications in primary and secondary schools, it would prevent all teachers, as those in lycées did formerly, from obtaining a degree on a par with their contemporaries in other professions, and make it difficult for them without the new M.A. to qualify for research.

Although Capelle deprecates this diminution of quality he can still speak of 'dispensing education up to the age of 13', (p. 146) as though it were a commodity and the process itself an investment. Such an attitude, it would seem to the reviewer, is not held on educational grounds, and is not only callous towards the children of France, but is chauvinistic in its exclusiveness towards the peoples of Europe and of the world. Capelle implies that France must dominate her neighbours.

Thus it is a relief to turn to **History Syllabuses and a World Perspective** edited by Alethea Lyall, formerly lecturer at Balls Park, and a collaborator over other works with James Henderson. Her book is even more tightly packed with information than Capelle's but is exciting and unexpectedly readable. It has authoritative backing from several quarters, in the foreword by Ronald Gould and preface by Edward Boyle and Joseph Lauwerys. The book is fully documented, contains a classified bibliography, list of audio-visual material and since it is mainly concerned with G.C.E. or C.S.E. syllabus and examination papers, on their equivalents in other countries, is geared to secondary work. A plea is made for a comparable survey of university and college programmes.

It is heartening to have a factual presentation, taken from all parts of the world, of what progress has been made in orientating official syllabuses. That the reformers have concentrated on this aspect not only spreads the ideas when individual teachers come to make comparisons between other countries'

methods, and between other examining bodies in their own, but gives sanction to teachers whose superiors, or the parents of whose pupils, insist that they restrict their work to examination requirements.

Mrs. Lyall makes the not always obvious point that a study of contemporary history necessitates a consideration of events in their world setting, whereas formerly, when the peoples of the world were less interdependent this was not so. This would seem to be a matter of fact rather than the expression of a bias by particular historians.

In the introduction three criteria are suggested which might be used in evaluating the detailed schemes which follow:

1. Does this kind of educational material help understanding of the movement towards the present stage of world history, with its transcendence of nationalism and growth of supranational organs of government?
2. Does it conduce to understanding of pressing problems of today that are worldwide, such as the food and population problem?
3. Is it wide enough in its imaginative range to satisfy the educational need to promote the capacity to feel, think and act "as members of one another" in the world community?

Mrs. Lyall points out that to see 'sectional history', or that of small nations, from a global point of view brings their chauvinistic mythology down to size. Furthermore it leads to an emphasis on non-political aspects — for particular examples see the syllabus of West Germany and of the Ipswich Civic College and of the Scottish 1966 Certificate of Education.

A somewhat controversial, though charitable, argument is that a religious framework, or the communist idea of class, represent special views of the unity of human experience: at least in their best senses they are certainly not nationalistic.

It would be impossible in the space of this review to summarise syllabuses and exam papers which are already very competently selected and summarised in the book. Of special interest or enlightenment are those from the U.S.S.R., Japan and Canada. Britain, it appears, offers the more able of her adolescents between 15 and 18 far less world history and far less recent history than their contemporaries receive in most other countries.

On the whole, the evidence collected in this book shows that the movement to develop less partial and more co-operative attitudes (rather than competitive ones as advocated by Capelle), and the psychological understanding which promotes such attitudes, is gathering momentum.

Anthony Weaver.

Creativity

A. J. Cropley
Longmans; 12s 6d

Intellect, suggests Dr. Cropley, a Canadian Professor of Psychology, is not synonymous with response to IQ tests, response to convergent or closed thinking; such criteria being more readily associated with 'doing well.' Tests of Creativity (divergent or open thinking) are, however, still in their infancy. Some of these — and the author gives many examples towards the end of his book, which may be useful, if not exactly breaking much new ground — seem almost as restricting as are tests for convergent thinking; especially when it comes to scoring, or marking, divergent tests; a factor of which Dr Cropley appears to be aware himself.

This little book does not examine the nature of Creativity in depth; it is intended more as a manual for teachers, particularly for such as are concerned with the psychology of teaching. The difference between SR (Stimuli and Response) and Cognitive Psychology is, for instance, conscientiously stated. Since, it is suggested, that there is a relationship between creative (divergent) and academic (convergent) approaches, a recognised minimum of the latter is essential, if the former is to be used successfully in teaching.

Creative children are likely to have a special relationship with their parents, because the latter are less likely to be over-conditioned by a desire to get their children on, by convention and by correctness; nor are they likely to have an over-protective attitude towards their children. Traditional influences are more marked in the case of girls than of boys. Although Dr Cropley recommends a middle path, a middle of the way, background for children, he places perhaps excessive emphasis on parental influence as a contributory factor in assessing whether a child is convergent or divergent.

Convergent children, it is suggested, are on the whole, preferred by teachers, who are often disconcerted by the unexpected and it is frequently difficult to distinguish between creativity and misbehaviour; both encourage unruly elements. Teaching techniques that make use of creative thinking lead to more efficient learning they make allowance for the discovered answer to a problem rather than a presented solution. Divergent thinking tends to encourage the arts and convergent, the sciences — pretty self-evident this! Since divergent children are apt to have a sense of humour and enjoy 'playing' with ideas, Dr Cropley resents an excessive demarcation between work being regarded as something stern and play as something frivolous.

When dealing with the presentation of ideas, the writing is straightforward and direct. On the other hand too much insistence on IQ statistics, too many references to psychology experts, too much repetition and perhaps a certain lack of humour, make for more difficult and less rewarding reading. This book will probably be of value to those interested in a psychological approach to Education, but, since so many of its propositions are already part of educational practice in this country, one wonders a little what the book really adds up to. Potential readers of CREATIVITY might care also to have a look at Krishnamurti's 'Education and the Significance of Life' (Gollancz).

R. G. N.

Improvisation

John Hodgson & Ernest Richards.
Methuen and Co. Ltd; 12s 6d

The essence of 'Improvisation' is for its authors 'a means of exploring in which we create conditions where imaginative group and personal experience is possible'. Their belief in this approach is so strong and fundamental that claims on its behalf, and even on behalf of Drama, seem, to me at any rate, somewhat excessive. 'Drama is the only form in which we can fully use man in the exploration of himself in a living situation'. One needs, I would say, greater knowledge of the psychological value of Drama to make such an assertion.

Without doubt 'Improvisation' is sincere, thoughtful, thorough and detailed. The book is, perhaps, a little too 'serious' and thus over-written. As a result it is often diffuse and repetitive; these criticisms arising largely from an excessive use of alternative suggestions in the exercises, such as those concerned with elementary grouping and the examples of '**Improvising using a text**'. Now and again, as in the comment on 'drugs', there is a tendency to introduce red herrings. Such factors are apt to mitigate against a smooth and flowing reading of the book.

In the practical sections, the major and most valuable portions of the book, the authors make many significant points including the importance of thinking within a particular situation, pointing out the difference between Group and Team work, stressing that the producer/leader should be flexible and able to observe the nature and condition of the participants **as these actually are**, the development, assessment and control of emotion. With regard to the exercises themselves, those concerned with difficult concentration, using stock characters as starting points for creating characters, working with two groups at the same time, are among the more challenging contributions.

Part III, '**Improvising using a text**', could perhaps have been the most interesting and is the most original one. Here the authors' somewhat dogmatic claims for Improvisation and their diffusion in the presentation of material take away from the actual impact that might have been made. Surely they are unfair to the dramatist in saying, 'The very fact of having to commit a play to paper means that the author is offering us at best a dehydrated meal'.

Improvisation can, of course, be used as a starting point for rehearsal and during rehearsal but, if practised along the lines advocated by the authors, it would seem that, unless the response of the participants was continuously creative, this would only be possible if time were no object; and, even so, because of the varying differences of approach and attitude of human beings, much time would indeed be wasted. Just imagine improvising on all the many facets involved in say 'KING LEAR'! Producers and actors arrive at understanding what is involved in a play in many ways. Broadly speaking understanding, controlling and shaping a text — transforming this into Drama — take place during the actual process of rehearsing. Nevertheless in this part many important points are insisted upon; getting to know and understand the 'away-from-the-text' background of the characters, arriving at the overall mood of a play and of the contrasted moods within this and the importance of physical association at all stages of creating Drama.

In spite of its excessive claims and a certain diffusion in presentation of material, there is a great deal in this book of value and beneficial to those interested in the subject; be it theoretically or as practitioners. I would recommend to such that, if they can get hold of a copy,

they have a look at the late Mary Kelly's admirable 'GROUP PLAY-MAKING' — to be read in conjunction with Mr. Hodgson's and Mr. Richard's book.

R.G.N.

Artisan or Artist

(A History of the Teaching of Art and Craft in English Schools)

Gordon Sutton

Pergamon Press; 60s

The title of Dr Sutton's book raises hopes which, alas, are not to be fulfilled. One expects or hopes for a work that will somehow unravel something of the contemporary dilemma, or muddle, in art education. What one gets unfortunately is an extremely painstaking account of the development of art education in English Schools mainly through the 19th and 20th centuries. There is no doubt that Dr Sutton has done a great deal of work, amassed a large number of facts — but unfortunately it seems to me he has been insufficiently selective in their presentation. We are told in the Foreword that the book is a revision of a Ph.D. thesis for the University of Leicester. It is a pity that Dr Sutton, who is Principal Lecturer in Arts and Crafts at the City of Leicester College of Education, did not have the courage, or the time, to revise it more drastically: putting more emphasis on the evaluation of the material, connecting it to educational philosophy in general — in other words to make the book more *speculative* and less reportive. Then, one feels, the evidence that he has so laboriously amassed might well have served to help in the great work of clarification that is now so much needed. As it is, one feels, what he has written is a source book for all those who seek the relevant information upon which to make up their own minds.

K. Matthews.

Christ and His Teaching

J. W. Hall

Evans Brothers; 10s 6d

In this book the chaplain of Merchant Taylors' School offers help to 'O' level and CSE candidates. The twenty chapters based on the synoptic gospels with appendices on Acts and John are useful enough. The tables summarising the miracles, parables and events in the gospel narrative will be valuable to those who have to use them. It is a pity that words in the glossary are misspelt on pages 162, 164 and 173.

The chief weakness however is the tone. Too often, Jesus is 'Our Lord'. The question of the historicity of the empty tomb is not even raised. The Essenes and the Dead Sea Scrolls are not mentioned in the text. Nowhere is it hinted that by His life and teaching Jesus judged society then and now, nor that His death and resurrection raised issues that concern men today. Mr Hall no doubt teaches better than he writes, but the implication of this book is either that the candidates are all in some sense believers or else that for examination purposes they will be counted as such. They seem to live in a world sealed off from the twentieth century with no doubts or urgent questions in their minds.

This book contains a great deal of valuable material and sound interpretation. I have no doubt that if used conscientiously it will help candidates to gain 'O' level passes. (Not CSE — it's well beyond candidates for this examination.) It will even help some teachers, though they would do well to supplement it in places with

some more recent work. But it will not arouse emotion, stimulate thought or challenge wills. There is something wrong with a study of the gospels that fails to do any of these.

Peter Cousins.

Designing with String

Mary Seyd

Batsford; 25s

Occupational therapists, teachers, youth workers and the housebound are ever seeking new ideas, especially ideas with a minimum of financial outlay. Mary Seyd in 'Designing with String' presents some new solutions to such problems. Clear explanatory script and copy drawings and photographs discover and exploit the potential use of the many varieties of string as an art form. Examples of its possibilities are given, ranging from very elementary suggestions to sophisticated art forms, full of originality. It is a book to enjoy, use and retain for reference in the studio library.

Joyce Grove.

Imagination All Compact

A. N. W. Saunders

Methuen; 25s

There are two kinds of imagination, creative imagination and sympathetic imagination. To the former group belong the great actor-playwrights, composer-performers, to the latter, actors who could not conceive a play, but can interpret verbally the intentions of the writer, the musician who can perform the opus as the composer 'heard it within'. It is to the amateur with sympathetic imagination that the book 'Imagination all compact' is directed.

More than two thousand years ago Cicero wrote:

'There is no beauty in any field which is not surpassed by that of the idea which served as a model for its conception, an idea inaccessible to sight, hearing, or any sense perception, and only grasped in the mind by imagination'.

A. N. W. Saunders, with courageous ambition, attempts to compress into two hundred erudite pages guidance on the approach to this 'sympathetic' appreciation of art — on the ways in which reader or viewer, or listener can best cross the necessary bridges of the senses and share the original creative idea. To do this, he cites many examples, musical, pictorial and literary, of which the latter are the most helpful, probably because, as the author declares, words are symbols presenting meanings which outstrip vocabulary and do duty for more than their original purpose; and since words must be the medium of a book they prove the most convincing form of inter-experience.

The pictorial and musical references of the book are far less satisfying, for whereas one may readily feel that one has penetrated the works of Blake or Eliot, Hopkins or Forster, to the original idea, a black and white reproduction of Constable's 'The Cornfields' introduces an idea surely foreign to the original, omitting as it does, the lovely, delicate contrasts of shades and hues. If Constable's mental picture had been black and white he would have drawn it so. Again, photographs of architecture and sculpture, because of the dimension lacking, are not satisfactory examples. The *originals* must be seen, just as music 'to reach within' must be heard. Beethoven's music was within himself, he did not need his sense of hearing to

make it, but for the amateur to share his vision, it must be performed and heard.

Thus, the book offers excellent direction, but the pictorial and musical illustrations are inevitably inadequate. The reader must go out and look and listen for himself, to do which the enlightened enthusiasm of the book will surely stimulate him.

Joyce Grove.

Asia: The Monsoon Lands

T. O. Newnham and T. F. Kennedy
Heinemann Educational; 15s

This book appears to have been designed for children who live in Asia. The end-paper maps have names printed in Oriental Languages — an interesting idea. It is divided into two parts: systematic and regional. The systematic chapters, one quarter of the book, define the area under consideration, cover relief, climate, people, population, farming, industry, transport and communications. An interesting section concerns population problems, nutritional levels and living standards together with the difficulties of obtaining adequate food for the inhabitants. Block diagrams are used to compare the daily diets of people in India and USA, authoritatively based on FAO statistics. An interesting map, reminiscent of the scheme of 'Taylorized Maps' (originally devised by the late Emeritus Professor E. G. R. Taylor) shows the countries of the world in proportion to their population, side by side with a map showing their areas.

The second and larger part of the book deals with the separate countries on a regional basis. The book is clearly and authoritatively written, attractively produced with a bright cover, illustrated by many maps, and excellently reproduced black and white photographs. It is strongly bound for school use.

The great value of the book lies in its sample studies: fourteen detailed descriptions of small areas with accompanying pictures, diagrams and maps. These studies range in scale from an account of Tokyo to a specific farm. This book will be most useful in the classroom to bring reality to a subject often marred by generalisations which are, at best, only half truths. A useful book for the teacher, it can also be used by the student; it contains no exercises but an effective index.

Peter S. Richards

Mathematics for Everyday Life – 5

A. J. Raven & S. M. Ault
Heinemann Educational Books Ltd; 13s 6d

Book 5 yields abundant interesting and attractively tabulated information, illustrated in contemporary colour and providing material for the teacher and pupils (non CSE?) to work through or select from. The course crosses the boundaries of English and geography, business studies and domestic economics, civics and heat engineering.

Jobs of good-for-the-soul book-work and rules for procedure in logarithms, trigonometry, mensuration and quadratic equations are regularly injected with the weight of sufficiency.

Guidance towards class discussion, plenty of graphical experience, metric conversion tables and a list of formulae are there to be noted. Four-figure logarithm and square root tables, yes, but turn elsewhere for trigonometry tables!

The whole, structured between achievement tests, is bound together by a trip to Trinidad and a doubtful bank balance. Those pupils of some ability who enjoy reading as well as calculating will judge this to be a pleasant and instructive book.

B. M. Bell.

Arts v. Science

Edited by Alan S. C. Ross
Methuen; 30s

This book is an anthology of essays on what Peter Hilton calls 'a great debate opened in May 1959 when C. P. Snow delivered the Rede lecture at Cambridge University and took as his title and theme 'The Two Cultures and the Scientific Revolution'.

The writers include the Headmaster of King Edward's School, Roy Pascal, D. V. Hubble, J. H. Whitfield, Professor of Birmingham University, W. K. Richmond from the University of Glasgow, T. R. Henn Fellow of St. Catherine's College, Cambridge, and P. J. Hilton Professor of Mathematics in Cornell University. Between them they represent both the 'two cultures', in one school, one American and several British Universities.

The book gives useful background for debate and should stimulate thought on a vital issue. Each essay is focussed on a special aspect of the problem. It is refreshing to find D. V. Hubble a paediatrician included among the teachers suggesting that education could be a means to a positive health and that barriers between medicine and education as well as between arts and science might be made less rigid.

Kenneth Richmond mentions several profound problems. 'Research into the mystery of human creativity — a word which has wider ranging implications — has scarcely begun. He goes on to suggest that present selection methods tend to pass over pupils gifted with spatial ability.

Roy Pascal when discussing University courses and the amount of general education that can go with various high degrees of specialisation says that the 'most important thing is however, to shake oneself out of these cliches and to see what actually is being done and where are the growing points'.

It may be possible that the growing points are in the student generation themselves and their pull from the future. If we could learn the fundamental courses of what A. G. Lamb calls 'The shift to the arts' we might transcend these somewhat sterile and dated debates about arts v. science and see into a future where creative education or student participation reconciles the two and breaks new ground. One criticism of the form of this book is that it might lead some readers to conclude as some politicians do that debate is enough.

Elsie Fisher.

An Outline of the Social and Economic History of Britain 1066-1956

J. Thurkettle
Pergamon Press; 30s hard cover, 16s limp.

J. Thurkettle's **Outline of the Social and Economic History of Britain 1066-1956** was written mainly for GCE 'O' and 'A' level candidates with the express aim of solving the problem of having to make full

notes during lessons. It is this need that has often excluded opportunities for discussion or for the exploration of individual interests during lesson time, and that has led many students to regard the subject as drudgery. Recognising this, Mr Thurkettle has produced a book which is already in note form; and his hope is that this will free both students and teachers from note-making and allow greater flexibility of teaching methods and lesson content.

The book is well planned and organised. It deals efficiently with the major topics needed for social and economic History syllabus. As such, it certainly serves the author's purpose. However, many teachers, particularly History specialists, may fight shy of such note form presentation because it seems to accept and cater for the worst features of our examination system instead of requiring students to think independently. (There are also specimen examination questions at the end of each section). The book will probably be most useful as a guide for the non-specialist teacher and as a supplementary or revision textbook for the less able candidate.

1066 to 1956 is a very ambitious period to cover in one volume; and I wish Mr Thurkettle had narrowed his scope somewhat in order to give fuller treatment to each topic — and especially to the most recent period which is only cursorily surveyed. Such a policy might also have reduced the cost of the book. To pay 30s each for hardcover copies of textbooks is beyond the budget of many schools and colleges.

The book would also have benefitted from a fuller use of tables, maps, and diagrams. For example, the inclusion of tables of 19th century population growth and mobility, mortality rates, and wage rates, would have been an economical way of presenting valuable information in such a way that the relationships between them were revealed and students were encouraged to analyse data for themselves.

Grace Jones.

Workshop, Brighton 1967. (See NEW ERA Sept./Oct. 1967). As well as discussing the content of our future studies, we tried to evolve ways in which we could work to include people of the original group who have lived at a distance, as well as involving the many people who have expressed interest but who may not be able to attend every meeting or give sustained time to this study. We hope to maintain a steady core of workers to give continuity, but are aiming to make the organisation flexible enough to allow for the coming and going of many other people as they feel able to contribute. We suggest that small groups meeting in people's homes may be the most effective way of working at first. Later we may need to organise a larger conference. We shall use the NEW ERA as our mouthpiece reporting the main stages of the work, and should welcome letters or other contributions to the Journal from groups or individuals. One of our aims is to try to fulfil the need which was expressed at Brighton for an inter-disciplinary study, so we hope that people of many professions will help us, and that there will **never** be a meeting in which teachers have 100% representation! We should like people of all ages including senior citizens, students, young people and children to join in this openended study of environment.

HOUSE GROUP IN SURREY

A weekend in February 1968

The group consisted of David Duttson and John Hertslet (primary school teachers), Frank Rutter (architect) and Mary Stapleton (lecturer in a college of education). From time to time we were joined by other people including students, and some young people home from boarding school for the day. Our starting point was School Buildings in relation to the needs of children.

We decided that we must concentrate first on the needs of children in their various neighbourhoods, and spent some time in discussing the restrictions placed on them through the nearness of fast traffic in towns and the absence of spaces for play in high flats. Against this we noted the work being done in many parts of the community to provide safer places for children to play. We thought too of other effective work to cater for children being carried on by people outside the

Children in a Caring Community

A note from Mary Stapleton, lecturer in a college of education.

Now that Frank Rutter has returned from Fiji — where he has been helping with the development plans for the University of the South Pacific — three of us living in the London area have been able to meet with him to discuss plans for following up the work of the Buildings group at the Teachers'

teaching profession. Among the many items we listed were Saturday morning art clubs for children of all ages, orchestras, children's library services, camps, clubs in museums, and cinema clubs. We hope one day to try to evaluate these against similar activities being offered inside our school buildings. Meanwhile our assumption is that children may be learning more effectively and with greater enjoyment in those places outside the schools where the equipment is available, and the adults they meet are particularly interested and inspired by their specialised work. Does success lie too in the fact that the children go to these places voluntarily and are able to leave when they are satisfied? Why then, are school hours so long, and the time for children to enjoy these amenities in the community, so short?

Knowing that anything which is over-planned in this country is likely to become fossilised, we do not wish to put forward a master-plan for the education of children via these community facilities, but think it would be worthwhile to look for examples of the most successful achievements along these lines in this country and elsewhere. We hope that many of you will help us in this search sending us your findings c/o The Editor, The New Era.

What about the teachers' part in the community too? Would teachers be revived by being given a change of base so that they could work alongside other adults of similar interests but different training? We envisaged in our group, for instance, the possibility of closer links with the library services so that not only would children (as at present some do) go out of school to work in the public library, but that a teacher with special qualifications would be based there, with a regular rota of helpers — senior citizens with some time to spare — giving children that special attention they seem to need when they are learning to read.

Our suggestions that teachers should be more mobile, led us to discuss the much talked about question of the need for young children to have the security and protection of one teacher in school. Has this, in the name of security, become an excuse for some teachers to be over-protective of children? We think that this matter should be reconsidered against the value to children of

meeting adults with many different views of the world. We believe that it is the young children just as much as the older ones, who need, the inspiration of musicians, scientists, artists and mathematicians. These they may meet if taught by a team of teachers. We should like to see this extended outside the school so that the teachers themselves could, as we have mentioned above, meet more adults through the day, especially adults who have a different kind of 'shop-talk' from their own.

Over to you then, to continue the discussion on ways in which the community may more effectively help the schools, or to consider the opportunities we should give to children and their teachers to feed on the community.

Learning—A World Affair

Grace Petitclerc, Vice President of the Institute for Research in Childhood Health and Education sends us this note about her International Educational Telecast. Many of our members will remember meeting her at the Teachers' Workshop in Brighton. This memorandum and an explanatory letter is being sent to the hundred and twenty five schools she visited around the world and is designed to link centres of creative learning as a way of fostering world understanding.

This is an International Communications Project to be effected by Global Educational Telecast for the development of mutual respect and understanding among the world's people as a vital substructure of peace.

PREMISE

Learning is a universal human experience.

The act, or process, of learning generates a magnetic energy that not only changes the structure of the learner but draws those who observe the process — observable on the face, in the eyes, in the resultant actions of the participant — into the same dynamic experience. This is potent identification.

To use television to bring the world's people face to face whereby they recognize themselves in an

act of learning and, consequently, identify, can unify the human family on a new level that bypasses political, religious, cultural, racial or formal educational differences.

At this level the **recognition** of inner relationships, the knowledge of man's likeness in performance as well as in potential, becomes the conditioning for peace — a quiet infiltration of peace in the mind and in the heart.

'The world is a miraculous chrysalis which cracks open under the heat of attention,' writes Dr Jonathan Miller, playwright.

SUGGESTED FORMAT

To crack open the world's chrysalis through television can be fun.

1. The program concept taken from the run-of-the-mill participation and World News Forum arrangement.
2. A permanent moderator co-ordinates each telecast.
3. In each program the moderator presents three native relators from three different countries — changed each telecast — to escort the viewers into schools, homes or communities of the countries represented where the world will witness various learning situations in progress which relate to the designated topic under study.
4. Frequently the three relators should be children.
5. Each situation presented must be simple, intimate and natural — not a demonstration of techniques but the sharing of incidents common to men and their families everywhere — in a step-by-step approach to that shining moment when child or adult reflects in his face the joy of a new awareness that enriches his life or expands his skills.
6. As a vital adjunct to the program, the moderator will invite the viewers to share a similar, or contrasting, episode with the world from their homes, schools or communities.

7. Willingness to share will be accomplished by letters to the moderator who will read them on the air, with a shot of the writer, or writers, if possible, projected on the screen while the letter is read.

8. The moderator will also invite the viewers to correspond by letter with the participants in the episodes telecast.

9. Coverage is practically limitless, extending to any home, school or community activity where learning takes place.

10. Age range should cover the full life span of learning.

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Editorial Notes

Counselling in Secondary Schools — Teachers' Working Party.

There is to be a non-residential teachers' working party organised on behalf of WEF by Raymond King, CBE, Chairman of WEF, at the Institute of Education, Malet Street, London WC1, on Wednesday 17th April and Thursday 18th April from 10 a.m. to 5 p.m.

Four sessions are planned to deal with a sequence of themes:

1. Towards a definition of Counselling.
2. The place of the Counsellor in the School's provision for care and guidance.
3. The position of Counsellor in the spectrum of mental health services — from classroom teacher to educational psychologist and psychiatric clinic.
4. The Counsellor in Action. Some examples of practice.

The Conference fee will be 25s including the registration fee. The application form is on the inside back cover.

Readers and contributors to New Era special and subsequent editions (November 1967 et seq) were promised a working party on this subject. Here it is. Irene Caspari is opening one session.

Chairman's Foreword to Working Party.

Changing conditions are leading teachers to take a new look at their schools' provision for individual

care and guidance; the later leaving age, larger schools, re-organisation, earlier physical maturity, the 'teenage' sub-culture, changed adolescent-adult relationships, the loss of the old stabilities, new attitudes to authority, and, in general, the many varied pressures upon the schools of a society influx.

Internally the 're-structuring' of the curriculum leads to changes in relationships which bear on matters of mental and social health. And of such matters recent Advisory Council reports are stimulating a more active awareness among teachers.

In these circumstances the concept of Counselling, a term and a practice long familiar in the USA has gained currency in this country, and is being used with a variety of connotations, some of which may set up resistances among teachers, not excepting those most devoted to the individual care of their pupils. Hence the need for clarification, definition, and example and the kind of approach that will keep Counselling clear of pitfalls.

We should look for a practice of Counselling, and in due course a theory, to evolve conformably with our own educational conditions. There is no ready-made practice or theory that we can take over from elsewhere. Institutional practices cannot be transplanted root and branch from one cultural and educational setting to another.

New modes of care need grafting with delicacy into a traditional body of pastoral practice that good schools have long adopted and continuously adapted. The English school is not a tabula rasa awaiting the Counsellor's inscriptions and prescriptions. Awareness of the need for, and identification of the special function of the Counsellor will make his advent more acceptable to teachers. Let us be clear that the job is not done by the adoption of a new nomenclature, and before we get on the band-waggon it would be prudent to know which way it is going.

Note. The New Era for November 1967 takes the form of a Horizontal Handbook on Pupil Counselling in Great Britain. The January 1968 issue has a valuable article by Dr Robert Shields. Bibliographies accompany some of the articles. 'Counselling in Schools' (WP No. 15) HMSO 7s. 'Pupil Guidance, Facts and Problems' Reuchlin. (Cou. of Europe).

CORRESPONDENCE

Dear Miss Elsie Fisher,

We are happy to inform you that we organised recently an Exhibition of our Students' Creative Work at the Jehangir Art Gallery, Bombay, from 12th of February to 18th of February 1968. On this occasion, we have published 'Esthetica' — an Art Magazine, which contains a number of Child Art and Craft activities pictures, a copy of which we have sent to you by separate mail.

We shall thank you if you will kindly review the magazine in 'The New Era in Home and School', if you think it proper.

Further, we have to say that if any of your friends are interested in buying the magazine, we shall be happy to send the same. The price will be £1 5s (sterling) which will include packing, postage, etc.

With many kind regards.

Yours sincerely,

K. C. Vyas,
Principal, The New Era School, Bombay.

Note. Review of this lovely book to follow.

Dear Madam,

Film: 'Young Children in Brief Separation'
No. 1: KATE, aged two years five months.
In fostercare for 27 days.

I enclose information about a new film which shows the behaviour of a little girl before, during, and after a stay in a fosterhome, including how she reacted when taken to visit her mother in hospital.

This is the first film in a series which will be completed during the next 18 months, dealing with the variety of responses of children between 17 months and 2½ years to both fostercare and residential nurserycare.

We believe that these films will be of interest not only to students and to the professions dealing with children but also to lay groups.

Yours faithfully,

James Robertson,
Tavistock Child Development Research Unit.

CREATIVE WRITING

FANTASY PHASE TWO

by Robert Berry

I stand naked, but I am clothed
I am bathed in nature's sunlight
And fallen leaves surround my feet
While I wait in fear for the growing night.
I try so hard to close my eyes
But fear tears them asunder
I only see whirlpools of grief
Not of magic or of wonder,
I see people with carbon voices
And children with golden eyelids
Little children that know no better
Than play all day on the chairlifts
That take them to the purple mountains;
And that is where the plastic prince
Protects and keeps the silver fountain
Before the gate of the castle keep;
A fearful serpent is watching
But when the children walk on by
He leaves the gate he is guarding
Because the serpent is kind hearted
And has always loved small children
And they always throw him peanuts
Then run when he is not looking.
Through the orchards where the honey grows
Around the tinsel lined flower beds
Along the rough and crooked path
Leading to the castle made of lead
Tiny frosted fairies dance and play
Around pink sugared mushrooms,
And yellow spiders lay in the sun
Tired of weaving silver looms
Little insects sit and whisper
To the swaying velvet flowers
And the children with golden eyelids
Jump for joy in the cool rain showers.
And now as I look back on myself
And think of how I'm meant to be
And look down upon my body
It was nature that had made me.

To Ripen into Blossom

J. D. Haldane

Consultant Psychiatrist

Betty Willsher

Teacher, Children's Inpatient Unit.

J. D. Smith

Senior Assistant Chief Male Nurse.

Department of Child & Family Psychiatry,
Playfield House, Stratheden Hospital, Cupar, Fife.

Introduction

In an earlier paper,¹ the hope was expressed that others concerned with the education of children in residential psychiatric units might describe their policy and programme. We have had no significant response to this hope. But it is apparent from discussions with colleagues in other units, either on visits or at conferences, that there is still a wide variety of policy and practice in regard to the educational programme of such units. We have already described how our own practice differs from that of a number of units visited in North America.² This present paper compares our former policy and programme with that which has been evolved over the last three years. It is not intended to describe a conclusion or a final state, but is offered as part of a continuous process of evaluation of a major aspect of the work of the Children's Inpatient Unit of a department of Child & Family Psychiatry.

The children and their needs

In this Children's Unit there are twelve places for boys and girls under 12 years of age. Twenty-five to thirty are admitted each year and remain from a few weeks to several years. The whole range of psychiatric disorders in children is represented. They come from all social classes. The full range of intellectual ability is represented. Some have been severely deprived of adequate physical care or of satisfactory relationships; some have presented delinquent problems; some are physically handicapped. While no child is admitted solely on the grounds of educational problems and needs, in almost every case there have been difficulties at school, in their behaviour, or in their relationships with peers and adults, or in their scholastic progress. Their difficulties in primary school may have reflected problems at home; or unrecognised delays or deviations in socio-emotional development; or disorders of the central nervous system,

e.g. petit mal.

The children may have feelings of failure, perhaps unacknowledged, perhaps recognised to the point of despair. Aggressive feelings may be overt or repressed. The conflict between love and hate (which so few of us adequately resolve) may be expressed in anxiety or in that guilt which accompanies the wish to destroy what is most loved. The children may lack an adequate sense of identity. They may have strong feelings of resentment. They may be rigid and inflexible in their attitudes and behaviour. They may need to regress to discover what they have not had. Nevertheless, the majority seem avid for experiences which, hopefully, somehow, will relieve their hunger and unease. All seek safety, security and loving control. Surprisingly many, despite their earlier experiences, discover or retain a belief in the capacity of adults to right their world: disillusion is not yet complete. In certain circumstances they can be outgoing, vital and lively in response. And they can be insatiable in their expectations and demands for response to their needs and wishes, quite egocentric, unable to work in cooperation with their peers, from whom they remain in isolation, or in constant competition for the attentions of adults.

There is no simple easy way of responding to the needs of such children, no routine which can be worked out and adhered to throughout a school term or year. The environment and the attitudes of the adults must attempt to compensate for earlier impoverishment or deprivation. The children need to be accepted, respected as individuals, supported, offered the opportunity for success. They need to find not only someone who will respond to these needs: they need adults whom they can respect as individuals and to whom they can show affection. They need time to find themselves, to explore the setting and the possibilities inherent in it. They do not need and do not benefit from, a policy intent on helping them 'catch up' with what they have missed in 'lessons'; nor pressure to persist or concentrate; nor long periods of formal work. The 'standard' expected, whether of behaviour or in relationships or in formal work, must be related to an assessment of the child's capacities and limitations, not only to what he can do, but to who and what he is. There must be no pressure to succeed, or to conform, or to keep pace with the others.

All this implies that the care, treatment, education of each child must as far as possible be organised according to his individual needs. It is never easy to do this, because the individual needs of all the other children have also to be met.

This description of the children and their needs could have been written at any time since the first patients were admitted in 1960. An earlier paper¹ described the policy and programme which attempted to meet the children's needs, especially those aspects of the programme which affected teacher and school. At various times during the next two years the staff were particularly aware of inadequacies and dissatisfactions in the policy and programme. From early 1965 till late 1966, we were for some months without a teacher and for the remainder of the time had only a part-time teacher. This situation forced us to look afresh at what might be the role and contribution of any future teacher whom we might appoint and at the place of the educational programme in what, hopefully, we call the total therapeutic programme of the unit.

The next section describes what we came to consider were the inadequacies and faults of our earlier policy and thereafter we describe the work of teacher and school during the period since late Summer 1966.

Earlier policy and programme

When the Children's Unit was being planned, it was decided to appoint a full-time teacher and to have the schoolroom within the unit. The expectation was that the majority of children admitted would require and benefit from the help which could be given by a teacher. The intention was that the work of the teacher in the classroom would contribute to, and would be seen as part of, the total therapeutic programme of the unit. We did not consider that the schoolroom should be in another building or that 'school' should be a separate building, because we considered that this would lead to a separation of the work of teacher and other staff, a division between them, thus creating difficulties for staff and children and leading to what we should have regarded as an unrealistic separation between education and treatment. The Local Education Authority, while paying the teacher's salary and supplying the equipment for classroom and other activities, accepted that the educational policy and programme should be a matter for teacher in

charge and Consultant Psychiatrist, who had the final responsibility.

This statement describes also the present position. And there is much about our earlier statement which we would not change. But there were three aspects of our earlier policy of which we became increasingly critical.

Firstly, it became obvious that the physical facilities of the classroom were inadequate and limiting. In particular, it was too small: there was insufficient space so that the number of children in school at any one time had to be limited; children could not move around freely; storage facilities were grossly inadequate; there was too little room for display of the children's work; the standard desks and blackboard which were used limited the range of work which could be done.

Secondly, we planned to organise the school programme to be similar to that of the normal primary school, making due allowance for the special needs and problems of our pupils/patients, on the grounds that this would 'provide a constant test of the children's capacity to cope with the reality of normal day school and a framework against which to measure progress.'¹ This aim took insufficient account of the real differences between our schoolroom and the normal primary school, of our patients and the children at day school, of our children's special needs and the needs of children living at home. It did indeed provide a kind of framework against which to measure progress, but as the premise was illfounded, so the 'measurement' was not necessarily realistic.

Thirdly, the 'school system' within the unit was much more of a closed system than we had appreciated, creating problems for children and staff of the very kind we had tried to avoid.

Reorganisation of the educational programme

Before her appointment, the present teacher had known of the work of the unit and had participated in discussions about the need for change. Though none of us found it free from doubt or conflict to put into practice what we had thought to be necessary, the major changes were made within a short time.

The schoolroom was transferred to a much larger room and a much more extensive range of materials and equipment introduced. Blackboards were dispensed with, desks were removed and tables and chairs substituted. Lockers were provided and storage space improved. A double stainless steel sink was installed. One corner was turned into a house, with a bed (and it is used — for dramatic play, for reading alone, as a retreat); sand trays and shop fittings were added. We have a much better range of books, allowing sufficient choice to satisfy the needs of children of different ages, intellectual and emotional levels, social background; and children who can read choose whatever book they wish. There is room to display collections of stones, shells, etc., and all the creative work produced by the children, so that they have the satisfaction of seeing their work is valued. There is sufficient space for the hyperactive, or those who need to retreat to a corner or need to express and test out newly discovered skills. We retained piano and percussion instruments and have a much better selection of records with a more efficient record player.

The former schoolroom is now a general purpose room. Films are shown there; the excellent range of schools' television programmes is available; stories are read and acted out. In another room on the same floor there is space for a wide range of activities and in other smaller rooms a child may work alone.

The 'schoolroom' thus became several rooms. The teacher, in association with nursing staff, was free to use these and other rooms and the activities of 'school' extended into the grounds and the surrounding countryside.

The second major change was to involve the nursing staff not only in day to day decisions about the children's programme (as had always been the case) but in working directly in association with the teacher in the main classroom and associated rooms. The teacher therefore became more closely associated with the general care of the children and the nurses more closely with an extended educational programme.

This change of policy and practice was not made without difficulty and the process is not yet complete, but we consider that it much more

satisfactorily meets the needs of the children than our previous practice.

The present programme

Education must be related to living and to a child's vital interests. Ideally, he should be emotionally and imaginatively involved all the time. It is possible to involve many of the children on a project, either individually or as a group and with or without adult participation, but it is necessary to allow any child to follow his own special temporary interest. The children have a voracious appetite for new experiences, but at the same time often have difficulty in attempting something new and may not be able to sustain the making of something from one day to the next. In giving a child freedom to pursue an activity of his own choice, we must not deprive him of support: it often places too heavy a strain on the child to have completely free choice of occupation on too many occasions. For two periods daily a group of four to six children, with one or two adults, will settle down with the blueprint of a project and the necessary materials. There must be sufficient time to complete the undertaking. This may be satisfying to the children, but may lead to the testing-out question 'Have I got to?': to this the answer may be a firm 'yes', or help for the child who fears failure, or permission for him to sit and watch rather than participate.

Just as it is very important to pick up an idea which the child may evolve and help him find the necessary materials, so it is important to assess how much help a child should be given and when to withhold help. Some children need much help to discover that they need not confine themselves rigidly to a limited series of activities. We have to distinguish between teaching children a craft, e.g. carpentry, cooking, knitting, and enabling them to experiment in creative activity. This latter may be helped by group enthusiasm, e.g. if an adult and three children are enjoying finger painting, another child may draw nearer and eventually join them.

Some degree of organisation of the programme is necessary, so that there can be a rhythm of quietness and of activity; so that the programme may have a recognisable framework which gives security; and so that the varying needs of different children can be catered for.

In the two daily sessions where noisy, intrusive behaviour is discouraged, we expect that children who can, will work on individual assignments set by the teacher, knowing they have the opportunity to obtain whatever help is needed from the adults. Teacher and nurses are able to assess what work the child is capable of doing at a particular time. Some children at the beginning of their stay seem to have a need to copy and so a careful selection of amusing and interesting rhymes is available: later, as his clinical state improves and the range of his experience is enriched, he will come to write spontaneously, a diary or a personal message to one of the staff or a contribution to the magazine. Children read aloud daily to an adult and often the adult also reads aloud. But formal work must not be split off from play and children may paint, play with sand or water or pursue any form of art work, provided it is not disruptive to the comparative peace of these sessions. Most children want to do some 'work': in this they are linking school life before and after their stay in hospital and in this they are being like other children.

Play is central to the educational programme. Winnicott³ says that all children 'remain to a lesser or greater degree capable of regaining the belief in being understood and in their play we can always find the gateway to the unconscious, and to the native honesty which so curiously starts in full bloom in the infant and then unripens to the bud.' As Winnicott also says, play gives children pleasurable physical and emotional experiences. It allows them to express aggression, not just to 'work it off' but to discipline it and express it safely. The nature of play may tell us something of a child's anxiety. Play is 'the continuous evidence of creativity, which means aliveness.'³ It acts as a bridge, a link between the reality of the environment and the reality of the child's inner world. It helps the process of developing relationships. It links ideas and feelings and bodily functions; persons and objects; fact and phantasy. It serves the function of self revelation and of communication which cannot be expressed in words. It keeps alive and available, the unconscious. Whatever adults can do to help a child play not only enriches the experience of the child (and of the adults too, if they will): it also is a contribution to the child's development.

It may therefore seem artificial, accepting as we do these observations by Winnicott, to separate the

activities of children into such categories as drama, acting, mime, art, music and movement, story telling, etc.; we do so partly because of the need for some kind of organisation, partly, no doubt, because of our need as adults to categorise or classify activities. We need to promote situations, or enable the children to create situations, in which children and adults may participate in activities which illustrate the themes of birth and death; of construction and destruction; of love and hate; of freedom and captivity; of fear and courage; of anger and forgiveness; of joy and sadness; of helplessness and power; of dependence and independence; of pride and humility; of justice and injustice; of good and evil; of magic. In these situations there will be a contrast of emotions; swift action and stillness; tension and relaxation; isolation and group activity. There will be acting and there will be being. There will be discovery of self and of others. There will be the opportunity safely to express and work through feelings and conflicts which may otherwise remain repressed.

Accordingly, we give an increasing proportion of time to providing such enriching experiences, whether at story time, or in a discussion, or during periods of creative work, or on expeditions. We do not encourage these activities primarily as a means of exposing material for interpretation, but for their own sake. The implications of what has been expressed may be talked of later, with teacher or nurse or doctor, but only if the child wants to. So often the actions and feelings themselves are sufficient interpretation to child and other participants. It seems more important for a child to have discovered something about himself than for an adult to tell him what has happened. To impose interpretive words on an experience which is primarily and satisfyingly at an unconscious level is sometimes an impertinence.

If such activities are to be described as therapy, then so be it. We are sure that they are necessary not only in and for themselves but also to enable the child to learn and as a preparation for and accompaniment to remedial teaching for those who have difficulties in reading, writing, mathematics. We have already mentioned reading and writing. What will also have been noted by those familiar with present day practice in the teaching of primary school mathematics is that materials and equipment used for play also form the basic equipment for

the teaching of mathematics.

Thus teacher and nursing staff participating in the planning and practice of the educational programme are sharing with the children a range of activities and experiences which, somewhat artificially, are sometimes separately categorised as play or therapy or education.

Problems for teacher and nursing staff

Though what follows concerns mainly teaching and nursing staff, the problems and principles discussed concern just as much the relationships between these and other staff concerned in treatment (doctors, psychologists, social workers).

It is both unrealistic and unfair to assume that when staff of different disciplines are expected jointly to contribute to a total therapeutic programme, there should be no problems or difficulties. Both teacher and nursing staff will, initially, base their expectations and concepts of the others' functions and roles on their own earlier experiences (phantasy as well as fact): the teacher on her experience of hospitals, doctors, nurses, illness; the nurses on schools and teachers they have known. Each is unlikely to have any detailed knowledge of the other's training. But the teacher is at some advantage: everyone knows that a certificated teacher has been to University or College of Education or both; and it is known that there is at present no nationally organised or accepted training which specifically prepares nurses for work in residential psychiatric units for children or adolescents. So both teacher and nurse have to recognise, accept and work through misconceptions, prejudices and projections about role and contribution.

Neither teacher nor nursing staff are parents to the children. Parent substitutes they may be and children may relate to them as they might to parents, but always temporarily. At the same time, teacher and nurse are faced with the potential problem for them, of the child who accepts one and rejects the other, or who makes demands of each, so that it is not always easy to decide who should and can respond to the child's needs.

The training of neither teacher nor nurse encourages either readily to accept untidiness, waste, disorder. In a unit such as ours, just as we have some difficulty

in acquiring the materials needed for the wide range of activities offered, so there is difficulty in conserving materials. A child may have an urgent need to destroy; restlessness, hyperactivity, impaired concentration may result in things being broken or dirtied or spoiled; brushes, glue, etc., may be dropped as a child moves impulsively from one activity to another. Staff have to be vigilant, yet not over-anxious, and able to accept that, our patients being as they are, some loss is inevitable. When to expect order; when to regard destruction as inevitable, even creative; when to tolerate the misuse or breakage of materials acquired or made only with difficulty: these are problems in the ordinary home, but are much less easy to solve in a unit such as ours.

If teacher and nurses succeed in making their jointly organised programme acceptable to the children, other problems follow. Are all the children to be included in this programme and if not, who is to be excluded and for what reasons? How many should be with the teacher at any one time? Who takes the decisions about a child's non-attendance or exclusion? And if our unit is enlarged to take 16 children (as we plan to do) with an improvement in the range of the facilities and the employment of a second teacher, similar problems will have to be faced.

How to resolve the kind of problems we have indicated? This can only be done on a basis of acceptance and respect and trust and this takes time and effort and a willingness to be honest. Regular meetings and discussions, both formal and informal, are needed. Teacher and Charge Nurse meet daily to plan the day's programme; they participate in a more formal weekly review meeting; they attend fortnightly meetings with department staff, when the case conference concerns inpatients; they have other opportunities to discuss the children with psychiatrists, psychologist, and social workers; and teacher and nursing staff regularly contribute to the inpatient records on each child.

The role of the teacher

In a residential psychiatric unit for children, the role of the teacher is complex. She must be aware of what common ground she shares with nursing, medical, psychologist and social worker staff, and at the same time of how her training, knowledge, skills and responsibilities differ from theirs. She must be

able to organise the school day for each child and for groups of children, not on her own, but in association with other members of staff, especially nursing staff, who share responsibility for the care and treatment of the children for all of each day. She must be able to convey developing knowledge, skills and techniques in education as they may affect the children who are inpatients. She must be able to relate what each child can do, needs to do, can be expected to do, to his earlier experience of school, his clinical condition and treatment programme and his possible future in regard to school. She must have both hopes and expectations, but not demands. She must accept the limitations of the children, her colleagues and herself in a realistic way. If she is constantly anxious about the children's scholastic progress, in the narrow '3 Rs' sense, she and they are likely often to be disappointed.

As with other teachers, much of our teacher's work is done outwith school hours. Then, she must see what each child has done in his books, assessing what individual help she should give next day and allocating the next day's work for each child. As we do not use textbooks previously used by the children, it is necessary to set work in each book. This means too that the children are spared the drudgery of copying out sums and that their efforts are economical and meaningful. A record is kept of vocabulary work, books read, spelling lists, spelling rhymes, mathematical practical work assignment cards, and new ones placed daily in each child's book. This takes time, but ensures much smoother running the following day.

The teacher alone, working in isolation, could not do remedial teaching of twelve children and also have time to take drama, music, story telling, art work, expeditions. The resources of other people have to be used and this must be a cooperative effort in which both the capacities and limitations of all concerned have to be recognised and acknowledged.

Just as the nursing staff, whose training emphasises care and treatment, can and do contribute to the children's educational programme, so does the teacher have a therapeutic function. There are certain unrealistic concepts to be guarded against: that the activities shared by teacher, children and nursing staff are educational, not therapeutic; that because the teacher does not have formal training in

psychotherapy, her work cannot or should not be therapeutic; that there should be rigid barriers between 'education' and 'therapy'. This is not to say that 'everybody can do anything' but it is an expression of our conviction that for children in a unit such as ours, education does not begin and end in what the teacher does; that therapeutic effectiveness is not confined to medical and nursing staff; that education and treatment must be the shared responsibility of all the staff of the inpatient unit.

In this paper, we have tried to describe one aspect of the work of a residential psychiatric unit for children. Whether and to what degree we are successful, to paraphrase Winnicott's observation, in helping our patients who are pupils to ripen into blossom, must be left to a later communication.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to our colleagues in the Inpatient Unit, who have enabled this paper to be written; and to our secretary Mrs J. R. White for her care and efficiency.

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Philosophy and Techniques for Development of Planning Cultures among the Poor

by EUGENE L. BAUM

In a letter enclosing the following article on the philosophy and techniques for removing cultural handicaps from American poor, Eugene Baum gives some interesting statistics which we quote below:

*Education as a factor in American Poverty:
Among both families and unattached individuals,*

there is a very high correlation (regardless of causation) between the amount of education and the amount of poverty. In 1963, about 44% of the more than 7 million families whose heads had less than 8 years of elementary education lived in poverty, contrasted with less than 5% of the 5.3 million families whose heads had 4 or more years of college education. A 1962 survey by the Department of Health, Education and Welfare found that, out of 100 million Americans aged 25 and over, 7.8% were functionally illiterate, with 4 years or less of education. More than 28% had only 5-8 years of education. And only about 18% had 13 or more years of education.

Relating these types of data more closely to poverty: Only 16% of the mothers in families receiving public assistance have completed high school, contrasted with 56% of all women aged 20-54. And 42% of the fathers in families receiving public assistance have less than 5 years of schooling, contrasted with only 9% of all adult males. In Chicago, Illinois, a study of 680 able bodied men and women on relief rolls indicated that more than half were functionally illiterate.

The School dropouts:

The phenomenon of school dropouts is highly concentrated among the families of the poor. In this decade, an estimated 7.5 million youngsters will drop out of school. In this connection, school dropouts and juvenile delinquency has been estimated as follows: 95% of the 17 year old delinquents are dropouts, 85% of 16 year old, and 50% of the 15 year old. The price to American society is incalculably high. The young dropout pays in limited job opportunities, lower earnings, lack of security, perhaps for the rest of his life. For the parent, and teacher, payment is exacted in frustration, anxiety, disappointment, a sense of having somehow failed. For the country, the payment will be a burden for years to come.

The Human Development Corporation accepted the challenge of integrating the approaches of the less educated poor and the more sophisticated planner in planning to eradicate poverty. This Corporation has never believed in an unreconcilable void between the poor citizen and the professional

planning process. Instead, we are attempting to guide the two along the lines of one united planner in relation to the total anti-poverty planning effort. The citizen from his direct experience can help define the needs. This serves as input into the social planners' experience and training. Bringing the two together provides the appropriate mix needed for an optimum planning effort. The primary objective of our planning grant is to demonstrate that the poor can plan alongside and in conjunction with the expert.

The development of a grass roots planning process is an important concept of this OEO related Corporation. This process is designed to overcome the apathy, suspicion or even fear that people living in depressed areas often have because of a lack of communication with planning specialists. The poverty stricken citizens of the target areas must be motivated towards improving their community and becoming self-sufficient as individuals. Therefore, the 'bottom-up' approach is an important part of the program. Methods not only of communication with citizens, but methods by which these citizens might enter actively into the decision making process must be built into the total program. Several of our departments will offer planning skills development to citizens so that with professional assistance the residents themselves can carry out planning studies and make policy recommendations that will benefit themselves as well as the entire city. This type of indigenous planning effort offers people genuine involvement and effectiveness in affecting the future of their neighborhood. A continuing dialogue must exist between citizens and professionals so that meaningful goals and practical solutions to their problems can be found, and so that citizens understand their effective roles in determining priority of programs.

This last point alludes to the most recognizable problems in all planning — the difficulty of reconciling citizen's goals with the practicalities of public programs and of reconciling these same citizen's goals with the feasibility of implementing programs to achieve these goals. One extreme is to allow the planning team to draw up the program. A compromise between the two with the citizen proposing and the

professional analyzing is one logical answer. Presently through our neighborhood organizations, citizens suggest ideas which they believe may be workable. The professional responds with ideas which will reach certain desired goals. Some ideas may be rejected because of prohibitive cost, or because similar ideas attempted before were found not implementable. Through continuing dialogue, a plan emerges.

In practice the situations encountered are difficult. It takes little analysis to discover that there are immediate conflicts between the goals of rational resources allocation and resident participation. Such conflict does not arise by virtue of the facts that residents are low income and unsophisticated. It arises from the general conflict between the expert who sees the larger picture (at least in his realm of expertise) and the lay citizen who sees his small picture only, but is quite concerned emotionally as well as logically in ensuring that the small picture remains satisfactory. The advantage of the HDC planning effort is that this conflict can be played out, and examined, in a ready-made laboratory situation. The inherent situation will be real — neighborhood groups competing with each other for programs and resources; lay residents discussing program matters with professional planners. Recording of minutes of these meetings, and constantly striving to reduce the disparity between the various polar extremes will be a continuing process. Interest in this type of conflict has been greatly stimulated in the St. Louis area by the sub-city planning concept developed in preparation for the Model Cities program. Several resident groups in the HDC area have become familiar with the planning concepts of trade off, budgeting, and allocation of resources as a result of their contacts with the Model City Program. In addition, HDC has recently submitted an 'innovative Program' which would provide a fund of about \$6,000 for each neighborhood district which would be programmed and administered by resident groups. One of the avowed purposes of this proposal is to provide a real life experience of developing budgets and setting priorities. Again, the stakes would be real, and thus the lessons should be meaningful.

The general objective of the planning process is to mobilize total community resources for

anti-poverty efforts, and utilize these resources in the most efficient way: Some specific objectives are 1) further analysis of the needs of the target, low income population and areas. 2) Demonstration of results of anti-poverty efforts through a survey and measurement of the outputs (benefits) of OEO and related programs, 3) A more effective use of funds and resources for a closer attainment of goals through cost effectiveness analysis. 4) Development of a community unit to coordinate planning both for HDC and other anti-poverty efforts. 5) Development and explication of priority areas requiring in depth research and analysis.

The Pilot Planning program is attempting to demonstrate a Community Action Program using a total systems concept that involves the poor in the planning process, and makes equally effective use of the required technical expertise. People and agencies to be involved in the process are the Neighborhood Advisory Committees, made up of residents of each poverty area, and the Citizen's Advisory Committees, made up of residents of each poverty area, and the Citizen's Advisory Council made up of elected NAC members.

The core of the Community Action Program in the Metropolitan St. Louis area is the neighborhood level station. Each station has a Neighborhood Advisory Committee (NAC) consisting of residents who sit as a board helping to determine policy, goals, methods and procedures. Toward this end the NAC 1) helps to define priorities. 2) helps to evaluate the ongoing programs as they relate to their particular area. 3) make recommendations as to need for new programs in the area. Although its role is advisory, the NAC exerts influence on the policy of the total program through the CAC members who advise the HDC Board of Directors.

The NAC and the neighborhood station's staff work as closely together as possible. In order to assist the NAC in the orderly conduct of its affairs while, at the same time, make absolutely certain that the OEO's maximum feasible participation of the poor in the programming is adhered to, the CAC (made up of two representatives from each of the 13 districts) adopted these guidelines for inclusion in each

NAC by-law and constitution: 1) At least 50% of the membership of each NAC and each sub-committee are persons who fall within the poverty income level. 2) Once a member of the NAC accepts employment with HDC, he immediately gives up membership to avoid conflict of interest on the Advisory group. 3) All terms of office expire in one year. 4) All NAC groups meet once a month. 5) All elections occur in the month the program ends or in November, 6) Neighborhood workers be given the added responsibility of encouraging total resident participation in the Advisory Group as they move from door to door. 7) In addition to any other sub-committees, each NAC will have at least five standing committees: education, health, social and civic welfare, housing, and development.

The CAC then, is a significant development in bringing maximum feasible participation into operation. The last year of operation of the CAC has been significant in terms of growth and development. Within the last year the CAC became a smoother functioning unit. Its structured agenda and adherence to same allowed for the maximum devotion of energy to the pressing problems of the day. A constitution and by-laws were adopted, committees were appointed and functioned effectively. When it became clear that certain amendments were mandatory they too became a reality. The CAC developed as a prime advisors to the Board of Directors. During the past year CAC representation on the HDC Board of Directors increased to five from three formerly. This means that one-third of the membership of the policy making body are direct representatives of the poor.

Citizen participation in planning and development of policies develops from NAC's and CAC. Citizen participation groups thus become the basis of development of the HDC program through on-going dialogues between the citizens, and the central staff. The Urban Training Center has begun to educate citizen participation groups in the many problems involved in the planning process, and contributions of residents and professionals are utilised.

Throughout the last months several major principles have been developed to increase

resident participation in planning. These are: 1) Increasing the role of residents in planning and decision making by increasing the information available to them about neighborhood needs and available agency resources. 2) Facilitate resident participation in the planning process by opening avenues of dialogue between HDC central staff planners and neighborhood residents. 3) Increase resident participation by providing training for residents in the planning process. 4) Give residents responsibility for planning programs. We have taken several steps to implement the above principles —

a) to assist neighborhood residents in planning programs immediately affecting them and their neighborhood, the planning staff has conducted an analysis of all anti-poverty programs presently conducted within each neighborhood district. The first phase, a breakdown and summary of neighborhood programs has been completed for each neighborhood district. This phase summarizes the total cost of professionals, non-professionals number of residents and non-residents served, salaries paid, and other costs in each district. Comparison between the resource expenditure per district has produced an index for each program in each neighborhood.

b) The Program Development Staff in co-operation with the Pilot Planning and Urban Training Staff have been engaged in developing a procedure for explaining the program development and planning process to neighborhood residents and neighborhood action councils. This procedure will be aimed at explaining the various constraints, restrictions and key factors which must be considered in a planning process. Following the completion of the amplified planning process manual, it will be presented to residents through the NAC's and CAC.

c) To date residents have suggested the need for two surveys: a study of utility companies policies on billing, estimates and budgeting of bills, and the requirements for deposits required, and a comparison survey of food prices in neighborhood districts. Neighborhood Advisory Committees and the co-ordinators have prepared draft questions for these surveys. The planning team has compiled the drafts, refined them, and

sent them back to the NAC's for further comment and suggestions. NAC are very interested in these surveys and the information provided should serve as the basis for further resident participation.

d) The Program Development Staff has developed a detailed phase refunding process in conjunction with Pilot Planning Staff. This refunding process will provide increased time and opportunity for participation of residents in planning for the refunding process at the NAC, CAC and Sub-Committee levels. Dialogue between resident and central staff program planners is anticipated, and is in fact, on-going at all of these levels during the current phase of the refunding process. It is expected that these conversations will not only involve the residents to a greater extent in the planning process, but will also facilitate learning by residents about the problems and constraints connected with allocation of resources to needs during planning.

In summary, we directly recognize some of the conflicts between any type of centralized planning and genuine resident participation. 'Maximum feasible participation' has become more difficult to implement as more rationalized central planning techniques are developed. Realization of this problem is one of the first steps toward the next progressive synthesis in planning practice and theory.

The Next Step

by J. D. SKINNER

This paper was written for staff discussion of 'the next ways in which we will be going into' to continue experiments in creative education described in the article 'As many first hand experiences as possible' in our April issue.

I think many of us are now ready to consider the next evolutionary stage in the development of a creative school. In my paper of some 18 months ago I formulated the case for unlocking our children, the curriculum and ourselves from the restrictions of formal teaching. I feel that we can

now, with some justification claim to have been successful in this task; however, we are very far from developing the creative freedom that our children need. Although I believe that freedom at certain points needs structuring, choice in learning is vital in creative education.

Let us be quite clear that in our present stage of development, in which children are rotated through bays working imposed and often integrated studies, we are falling short of this ideal. Allowing the child to develop creatively implies selectivity in subject material in undefined time limits.

Now I am convinced that certain studies need to be carefully structured. Mathematical experiences whether environmental or with apparatus such as Unifix, require a pattern of development which the teacher needs to guide if the child is to mature and communicate intelligibly when stating his discoveries.

I also believe that the development of language is too skilled a task to be left to the mercy of the rotating bay. A shared experience at class level in which a theme is enlarged through speech, movement, music, art and craft, leading finally to the writing of sensitive prose and poetry is essential to the child's aesthetic and speech development. If I can enlarge upon this: recently I took some children to a huge fire burning by a demolished house. They went close enough to the fire to experience to the full the noise and heat. On our return we discussed the fire in terms of destruction and danger. Because the experience had proved slightly frightening many interesting and previously unspoken fears were revealed — one child confessed to a fear of falling asleep at night because of the dangers of fire, yet another spoke of being burned when she was a small child. The vocabulary was further enriched by a movement lesson in which the children tried to portray the violence of the flames. After further discussion the class split into two groups, one to the art bay for painting, the other into quieter areas for poetical and prose descriptions of the fire.

It could be argued that not all experiences can spring from the environment like this and I would agree, although I am sure we miss a lot of valuable challenges here. Often a story, a poem or just simply a related tale will spark off

some form of creativity. Some experiences can be made more meaningful to the children by enrichment through the wealth of available literature — think of the Norse legends. Of course not all experiences need to be climaxed in writing. Our fundamental aim is the growth of speech and vocabulary.

It would appear that the development of creative feeling can best be expressed through children selecting themes for study in an undefined time structure. That is to say that a child can combine with others, or work by himself in studying a topic that interests him; for example he might wish to join with two other children to learn about Dinosaurs. The teacher discusses with them books and visual aids they may need and also advises on the materials available for use in, say, constructing a Pterodactyl. He may also suggest certain visits the children may wish to make and perhaps contacts a willing parent who will escort the children. Display space, materials, books, visual aids etc., agreed on, the children begin. The wise teacher gives advice on the topic but will not precisely define the structure — that is for the children.

The study may last a couple of days, it may last two weeks, but it will come to an end when the childrens interest is exhausted; never forget that it is interest that conditions true learning. Although it may be argued that a teacher could find himself swamped by childrens demands in this situation, you will have to remember that not all children will wish to start a new study at the same time, and where you do get a small queue it could be suggested to the children that perhaps some could get on with their maths assignments, while others sort out material and discuss the planning of their topic.

Obviously this will be a stage of development for the child and it may well be that for the first years at least, children could be guided through class topics towards individual exploration. Again, a child who wishes to write an adventure book or a book of poems should not be forced into a topic in which he has no interest. Planning in free choice would be improved if the child was encouraged to indicate in advance the study he wished to make. A sheet containing this

information would provide a fairly reliable record of his topic studies; Perhaps this format could prove useful:

TOPIC STUDIES

Name.....

Date

TOPIC

Art & Craft

Group Names

Materials display space

Visits

Incidentally it is most encouraging to see so many of our children now working their maths on an individual basis from assignment record sheets. Time-table planning for a day in this situation might run like this

9.45-12.30 Maths and Study themes.

1.45-3.45 English experiences.

3.45-4.15 P.E. Music, handwriting, literature etc., (or wherever these fitted in.)

Now although this is not the completely integrated day which one might feel would be ultimately desirable, we are significantly moving towards the education of the whole child. For the child such an education implies learning from experiences that involve his interests and emotions, the development of relationships with other children, understanding his environment and above all the ability to grow creatively, recognizing the value and the wisdom of his choice.

Technology. Why not?

by BERTRAM BANKS

based on an address delivered to WEF in London.

A. N. Whitehead, in his "Aims of Education", says: 'Any serious change in the intellectual outlook of human society must necessarily be followed by an educational revolution. It may be delayed for a generation by vested interests or by the passionate attachments of some leaders of thought to the cycle of ideas within which they received their own mental stimulus at an impressionable age. But the law is inexorable . . . ' I hope Whitehead is right about 'inexorable' but his 'delayed for a generation'

worries me because I firmly believe that there should be radical change in our educational ideas and a breakthrough in our educational technology right now. Technology? Why not? — we live in a technological society and this has surely produced a serious change in our intellectual outlook. The role of the teacher must change with these times, and this is the way we must go.

A currently much used phrase is 'the inequality of educational opportunity' and there are many theories about the causes and remedies, some backed by respectable research, some by pseudo-psychology, some by political arguments, and some by blinding emotion, but I suggest the greatest inequality of educational opportunity, never named because it has not been seen or because it must not be expressed, is the chance exposure of all our children in any type of school to either good, bad, or indifferent teaching or to progressive or backward organisation within our schools. Further, there are currently some problems which are comparatively new to our schools which aggravate the situation.

Our present generation of middle-agers were exposed by chance to varying standards of teaching, and without labouring this point, I suggest that the reader asks himself or his friends how many subjects at school he or they were exposed to in which success was a function of the standard of teaching. Amongst my own friends I find a ready acceptance of this suggestion, notwithstanding the fact that in the 20's and 30's there was no acute shortage of teachers.

The situation is now graver. We had a first year A stream class in our secondary modern school who were deprived of their mathematics teacher for the whole of last year through her prolonged illness — she could not be replaced by a Maths specialist so I had to remotely-control their work through any odd supply teacher we were able to enlist; in a neighbouring Boy's School a master went sick just ten weeks before the boys took their 'O' levels, and he could not be replaced; and in another school a young teacher with high academic qualifications but no ability to communicate or establish relationships, stuck to her job miserably for two terms before crying off. Now these are not uncommon experiences in most schools and are the order of the day in many districts of teacher-

shortage, and in every such case pupils are suffering purely by chance and this chance exposure to good or bad teaching (or teaching conditions) can happen in any school in our system at any time.

This is not all. Let me quote from, I believe, the ENEF evidence to Plowden — 'The teacher's function is not learnt once for all in training college or university department of education, but must be learned and relearned during the whole of a teacher's professional life. The problem is of a new urgency at the present time owing to the many new demands upon the schools, the speed of change in both the content and techniques of teaching, the impossibility of bringing all the new skills the teacher needs, let alone the experience to apply them, within the scope of initial training and, for the older teachers, the obsolescence of much of the training they received in the pre-war years'. Add to this the words of James Henderson — 'Our job as teachers has become perplexingly difficult . . . but somehow, apparently, our currency is, for distressingly large numbers, not acceptable', and we have stated most of our problem. At least, the ENEF recognises the seriousness because it uses the word 'impossibility' — and the insular classroom teacher, resistant to change, is fighting a losing battle.

It is interesting to attempt an analysis of the reason for this insularity. The classroom is often a closed situation in which the teacher is exposed to great stress; to achieve success in this situation, the teacher builds in defence mechanisms which will be repeated if successful to the teacher, but these are not necessarily a function of what outsiders would call good educational practices. They could be furtive slapping, shouting, or vicious sarcasm, none acceptable educationally, but very successful to the teacher. And, this is the important thing, good or bad, very resistant to change. This argument also applies to methods of teaching, selection of content and sequencing of material; who dares criticise years of successful teaching which has been so proved? The tragedy is, of course, that the resistant teacher is losing everybody's ground heavily and, if something is not done quickly, it will be irretrievable.

It seems to me that there is a simple answer.

Because, very often through no fault of their own and certainly because the content and techniques of teaching are changing so rapidly, and communication with the children is becoming more difficult, we must not expect our teachers to cope with the impossible. We should withdraw them considerably from the teaching situation, and help them to re-establish better personal relationships without the strain of drudgery in their work, and give them an opportunity to do what they are paid for, that is, educate their pupils. What does this mean? We must **somehow devise auto-instructional courses for as much of the material as we can**, reduce the strain of class teaching and increase the opportunities for individual learning, expose the children to up-to-date, motivating and self-checking material and give the teacher a chance to encourage his pupils to accept the responsibility of their own learning through individual, small group and large group situations.

This is only, of course, a resurrection of the Dalton plan, but we can now make it work. I remember being taught in my primary school by a progressive teacher who introduced us to the plan. We selected what task we wanted to do, worked by ourselves, and then had the task ticked off by the teacher when completed. One vivid memory I have is of the permanent queue at the teacher's desk and how I would sit quietly reading until it had diminished. I can also remember some of the boys wasting their time and being caned regularly by the teacher and, because of the queue, he never did get round to helping us individually. This is probably why the plan withered from our schools, but we can make it work now with programmed materials, (books, machines, and tapes), all motivating self-checking materials, and film loops, films, film strips, worksheets and assignment cards, again all motivating and reinforcing. I know this works because we have done it at my school, even without the films, film strips and film loops, and we never have a queue, a child never waits longer than a few minutes for my help and I am sure the classes are learning more than if I were teaching them directly. They certainly think so, and much prefer this course work — in the nicest possible way without hurting my feelings, they let me know that they would not mind one

little bit if I never taught them directly again.

Two classes have formed the experimental groups and have been working on a specially prepared course in mathematics since November, 1966, now a period of four months. Without reporting results in detail, I can say that the scheme has been wholeheartedly accepted by the children, they consider the course much better than normal classroom teaching, and most have reported that they consider about three-quarters of their total time in maths should be spent on course work. The majority of these children say that working at their own pace and selecting their own path through the course are two important advantages, and over two-thirds of the children can see no disadvantage.

For the teacher, I can see several disadvantages, the most obvious and serious being the time spent in preparing the course. I use my own programs and programmed tapes, and the preparation time to working time ratio is prohibitive, running to between 40 and 60 to 1. It is therefore obvious that these materials must be made as available to the teacher as text-books. Even the worksheets for structural work and discovery experiments carry an exorbitant preparation to working time ratio, though not so great as programmed materials, so these should also be made available. Apart from these two disadvantages, I can see no others. The advantages are many — I have a well-concealed but very effective control over what the children learn, and their progress is carefully checked at frequent points through the course; my relationships with the children are smoother and stronger because I am always helping them individually; I have handed over my responsibility for the children's learning to beautifully prepared and tested materials carrying a preparation time that I cannot normally spare for lessons; I am getting to know my children more intimately because my relationships are more one-to-one than ever before, and they seem much more willing to ask for help when they are in difficulties in an individual problem than when in class.

I am well aware that similar organisations of work have already been established on some schools, but to my knowledge, only to any extent

in Primary Schools, and then rarely with programmed materials. I suggest, very humbly to my primary colleagues, that we have a rather different problem in our secondary schools. We can object as much as we like to examination systems but we live in a society which uses examination currency and we do no service to our children if we do not produce as good examination results as we can. This is why the course I have designed is controlled. Also, we have the special problem of most of our children slowly but surely losing all natural interest in school work from the 2nd year onwards, and this is why inherently motivating materials such as programs are necessary. Some of these children are remotivated when they or their parents decide that a 5th year course would be a good thing, or are interested in a particular subject because they are exposed to outstanding teaching or have a very special interest, but the majority of 'Half our Future' cannot leave school quickly enough, rejecting all that it stands for. Incidentally, we have a special leavers' class which has been put on to my course and after four weeks their teacher says she does not recognise them for the same class, they are working so hard at the materials.

I am sure that this is the way we must go, and if we could extend these motivating courses into other subjects, we may find many of our present problems and dilemmas disappear. First, the *bête-noire* of many of us, examinations. If we organise the materials in an upward spiral, each loop being dependent upon each lower one in such a way that it is impossible to be at any point on the spiral unless all lower loops have been successfully worked through, then all that is needed is a certificate stating the position on the spiral. Society would have to be educated in this new currency of ability statements, but this would be easily accomplished with a carefully planned advertisement campaign on television.

One of the irritations when a class is working on my course is when the bell rings and everything is stacked away. I am sure we could throw the responsibility of the selection of material more on the children to the point of allowing them to finish a task when they were able, then going to another Department to start another task in that

subject, finishing in their own time and then changing the subject again. Or better still, have no subject barriers and all material in one room, with never a bell to tell us to down tools.

Streaming could be dropped as easily.

Non-streaming, as we know, makes more demands on the teacher than streaming, so much so that the success of non-streamed work depends very much on the quality of the teacher. In any classroom with courses set up, children of all streams, in fact, of all ages, could work together.

If these courses were made available to all teachers (and we could have a selection to choose from), and we organised them to be flexible enough for a teacher to build-in any materials he wanted to, we would reduce to practically zero the chance exposure of children to good or bad teaching because the main skeleton of each course would consist of superb teaching material. And if we could provide courses in all subjects (that is, those amenable to course treatment), we need not build large comprehensive schools any more because of inequalities of educational opportunity. Every school we have now could be turned into a Comprehensive in the sense that each school could provide courses (superb, at that) for any child of any ability. We could take it from there how we liked, but at least we should know that there would be practically no inequality of opportunity for which the school was responsible.

There is also the small point that a nation invests in its educational system, and it would be prudent of us all, in terms of future survival, to attend to the efficiency of learning in our schools. Some of us know which way to go, — all we need is some help towards this change in the role of the classroom teacher.

NOTE

This article was written over a year ago and since September 1967, 12 classes (involving 6 teachers and over 280 children) have been working on course material for about half their Maths time. At present (April 1968), I can report that the teachers, after some initial doubts and apprehension, now speak very highly of coursework, that only a small percentage (less than 2%) of the students rejected

coursework in answers to a questionnaire, and testing is showing remarkable results (from 76% to 97%), which testing has now made formal school examinations in Mathematics redundant. We are also coping successfully with several unstreamed classes, and after some 6,000 student-hours the damage and loss to equipment and apparatus amounts to only a few shillings. The extension of coursework to so many classes has been made possible through two days a week release from school duties, jointly arranged by the Kent Education Committee and the Nuffield Resources for Learning Project.

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'The Comprehensive School in Action'

Maurice Holmes has just retired from the headmastership of Elliott School to which he came at its opening in 1955 from the headship of a smaller comprehensive school at Douglas I.O.M. There is a need for more information about comprehensive schools from the inside by experienced practitioners. The title may suggest a broader treatment than Mr. Holmes intends or than the compass of a small book permits. On the whole it gives a picture of one of the large London coeducational comprehensive schools and the ways in which its organisation has evolved during its first twelve years to meet the problems posed by unselective entry and access of all to full secondary education. No claim is made to unique solutions or the preparation of a blue-print.

The author's theoretical views and philosophy of education are implied in his practical solutions rather than elaborated in argument. His fundamental position is that all children are of equal importance in school as they are in the family. Equal worth does not imply similarity of treatment. A regime that respects individual personalities must have regard to individual differences. The school's function is to identify and foster talent of all kinds, and it is through its variety and wealth of provision that the comprehensive school can widen the scope for individual choice and supply the incentive to creative work in so many fields.

The developmental approach demands flexibility of organisation and in the author's practice, rejects the rigidities of 'streaming' and early 'setting', not by fully heterogeneous grouping within the class, but by horizontal banding of classes in groups according to general performance and pace; and after the third year according to examination requirements. For those who need remedial teaching, perhaps initially up to 20%, he shows how they can work in, and in the majority of cases graduate from, a Remedial

Department staffed by teachers specially qualified to organise success for the individual, and related to other departments in such a way as to avoid suggestion of a ghetto.

To Mr Holmes personal relations in the school community are of prime importance and the social organisation is planned to develop them. This note is struck from the start in the sensitive and studied reception of pupils from the primary schools and their transition to the secondary stage. A controversial point is the separation of boys and girls by 'Houses'.

He is for parental choice rather than mass drafting of children from primary school to comprehensive. He sees the undesirability of the rigid catchment area, especially in housing estates with uniformity of social background. Too much can be sacrificed to administrative expediency. Mr Holmes may remember that under the initial L.C.C. local plan for 'delimited areas' my own school, Wandsworth, was in the Elliott School's delimited area, but quite peripheral to its own.

Mr Holmes bows to no doctrines because they are fashionable but chooses his own solutions. On a number of points but not on his main philosophy I would differ with him as he would expect in the case of any headmaster who had worked out his own comprehensive system. But all of us would respect his experience and convictions.

'Topical' or in extended form. Time of Preparation for Industry Commerce and Adult Life. The coinage is not inapposite but its real ingenuity lies in its appeal to the group of adolescents concerned, as a label for the experimental course they embarked on at the beginning of their fourth and last year at secondary modern school.

Non-selective schools, secondary modern or comprehensive, commonly have the problem of giving purpose and direction to pupils for whom the continuation of schooling beyond the compulsory age holds no attraction. The percentage size of this group in any school depends on such factors as cultural background social expectation and general ability level, but the content and organisation of the curriculum patently makes a difference.

The traditional studies, as commonly pursued during the first three years of secondary schooling, have left this group with a sense that they are failing to measure up to the standards required to pursue them further, to goals like C.S.E. or G.C.E.

Though within the existing framework their school was making conscientious efforts to meet the needs of these pupils, the situation to Mr. Boothman and his colleagues still smacked of the 'institutionalisation of failure'. They felt they were failing to meet intellectual and emotional needs, to provide opportunities for personal development and self-fulfilment, and to prepare for the transition from child to adult. They boldly decided to re-think and re-cast their curriculum: to dispense with subjects, the regular time-table, streaming, and traditional assessments. They would proceed empirically devising solutions to practical problems, pooling their ideas, working as a team, and learning as they went along.

The special course drew upon topics in the field of social and environmental studies, vocational education, recreation and leisure, music, health and hygiene, safety, planned living, relations and responsibility.

Two features of the organisation that should have special mention are the unstreamed, single-sex, tutorial and working groups of 20 (one notes the I.Q. range 103-71, the generous staffing, the reasons for single-sex groups). and the two modes of team teaching which are tried out and evaluated.

Mr Boothman and his colleagues are to be congratulated upon the success they achieved, the account of which is all the more convincing because of the self-critical attitude adopted and the readiness to admit difficulties and short-comings.

This book reinforces what we learned from perhaps more tentative experiments at Wandsworth in the late fifties (features of which were described in *Forum*, Autumn 1961) namely that such approaches do build up into new principles of education capable of wider application throughout the secondary school. Such principles transcend the scheme's limitations and land us in a dilemma. They result in a change of attitude that enables these pupils to continue willingly and profitably at school. Should not this be the ultimate criterion of the success of their application in a fourth year of 'premature leaving'?

'A Teacher's Guide to Tests'.

Stephen Jackson

This is a compendious, concise, and critical account of tests for use in schools designed to make them better understood by the average teacher or the enquiring layman. It will encourage intelligent use rather than test addiction.

Tests are far more varied in kind (Mr Jackson deals with 150 different types) and far more specific in purpose and application than the average teacher is aware. We need to know a great deal about a test before we can sensibly or profitably use it, and much of this will have to be taken on trust. Hence the importance of the services of the National Foundation for Educational Research (N.F.E.R.) and Moray House in the production and monitoring of tests of expertly vouched validity, reliability and standardisation, with meticulous and discriminating manuals for guidance.

The decreasing demand for eleven plus tests, reflecting not on their quality but on their use, has made room for tests more in line with current educational thinking and changes in teaching. Many recent developments point to new and wider use of tests: for purposes of the 'profile' or multiple assessment, for secondary stage 'diagnosis', for the guidance that replaces selection in the comprehensive school, for evaluating objectively the use of new apparatus and teaching method and checking the value of technical aids, for the initial assessment in programmed learning. The author emphasises that in these and other occasions for the use of tests, the purpose is to enable the teacher to teach more effectively and therefore the child to learn more efficiently.

But the tests and knowledge of testing must be up to date. The author deals lucidly with the ways in which tests are invalidated by changed conditions and educational and social context. He shows us the tests in modern dress and re-states testing in terms of current thinking and in the light of recent research, with guidance to the reader who wants to pursue findings in more detail. How many of us are aware of the project for a New British Intelligence Scale to be completed between 1965-1970?

Part 2 of the book is a classified compendium of tests, giving a precise and succinct summary of each

with a brief critique — a most useful piece of work. There is a commendable Tailpiece, culled from Sir Cyril Burt: 'Tests can still be but the beginning, never the end, of the examination of a child' . . .

Raymond King.

Learning to Give as Part of Religious Education

Ken Russell and Joan Tooke

Pergamon 21s

Paragraph 163 of the Newsom Report affirms that 'the whole staff, irrespective of religious affiliation, can make a united contribution to both the spiritual and moral development of the pupils. It can open their eyes, enlarge their understanding, enlist their sympathy so that they will not be blind to the colour bar, deaf to the cries of the hungry or aloof from the loneliness of neighbours . . .'

This book may be seen as a commentary on the above. The authors, who are concerned with education and religious education at City of Leicester College of Education, do not claim that what they offer is an exhaustive scheme of religious education. But they suggest how the circumstances of the mid-twentieth century may be presented to children in such a way that their hearts will be touched, their minds fed, and their wills challenged as they see that Christianity is concerned with live issues. Not that the book's concern is narrowly didactic or evangelistic; in teaching younger children in particular, the material need not be related explicitly to religion.

The plan is coherent. An introductory chapter about giving and helping is followed by a mass of teaching material and suggestions for activities, arranged under three headings. First come four themes (Blindness, Children, Leprosy, Refugees) which are integrated with biblical material. These are followed by accounts of four organisations (The Anti-Slavery Society, Dr Barnardo's Homes, The Danilo Dolci Trust, The Grenfell Association) which are furthering the work of well known Christians whose life stories also offer useful lesson material. The third section comprises needs to be met: addiction to narcotics, the work of Alcoholics Anonymous, Amnesty International, The Samaritans. The last chapter considers the roles of statutory and voluntary giving.

The authors disclaim originality. But the book is unique in two ways. Although such themes are being used increasingly by teachers anxious to relate moral and religious education to the world today, no other publication offers such a variety of material with so many practical suggestions. And although the treatment is necessarily brief (the five chapters occupy 150 pages) there are full bibliographies, 16 pages of addresses and a list of selected themes. At a guinea this soft backed book is reasonably priced by Pergamon Press standards.

There are slight inaccuracies: wrong spellings of *anomalous* and *Rechabite* on pages 120 and 122 respectively. It is not true that Plymouth Brethren condemn alcohol. But the errors are few, in view of the nature of the book.

It may however (as another reviewer has pointed out) lead to a discussion of a far deeper nature than any contained in its pages. They deal with suffering that can be prevented or at least alleviated. What are we

to say about suffering that can only be borne? A book like this must lead pupils and teacher alike to face the problem — or the solution? — presented in the cross of Christ.

P. Cousins.

Influences on Parent Behaviour

Lois Meek Stolz
Tavistock 65s

Dr. Stolz, who is Emeritus Professor of Psychology at Stanford University, has collated her findings from over 300 detailed interviews with parents. These interviews have been exhaustively analysed and correlated with the result that, as so often happens with professors of psychology, from this mountain of material has emerged a rather small mouse.

The aim of the study was an enquiry into the child-rearing values and beliefs commonly held by parents, the effects of these on their children's behaviour, the way in which the parents' own past influenced their attitudes, and also the degree to which mass media, advice from professional people, and local folk-lore affected the parents' approach to their task.

Needless to say in dynamic terms virtually nothing of much note emerges, and certainly nothing which would surprise any serious student of child development. The most interesting, and probably the most useful aspect of the study is the manner in which Professor Stolz has been able to examine the different attitudes adopted by fathers and mothers towards child-rearing processes.

This study supports previous findings in that fathers are clearly more influenced by abstract values and beliefs, while mothers appear to live nearer the ground and are more inclined to be influenced by people they know and trust, the books they have read, and by television programmes. Fathers appear to take a longer view of the development of the child, relating, rather more than mothers do, the developmental processes taking place in the home with adult expectations. Consequently, fathers place greater emphasis on education, on moral values, and the need for the child to accept responsibility. As might also have been predicted fathers lay greater emphasis on punishment, and techniques of control than do mothers, and are more inclined to be strict.

This volume may contribute something towards the growing conviction in the child-development field that insufficient attention has been paid in the past to the significance of the father in the home and the need for him to be able to define and appreciate the role he has to play in the nuclear family.

Robert W. Shields.

W. B. Curry: A Pioneer of Education

J. W. Tibble
University of Exeter; 5s

It was most appropriate to invite Professor Tibble to give the first W. B. Curry Lecture in the University of Exeter for Professor Tibble was once both on the staff of the Department of Education in the University and a parent of Dartington.

At the outset Professor Tibble traces the progressive school movement back to the Utopias of the 16th century and the Community foundations of the 17th century and the emergence of these through diverse ways in the 20th century in, for example, garden cities, town planning, modern sociology, the Fabian society, the welfare state. Education and social reform developed in line with each other. The first school usually called 'progressive' at Abbotsholme, Staffordshire, sprang up against the background of community ideals. And one thing gave rise to another, J. H. Bradley left Abbotsholme to found Bedales a well known breeding ground for progressive teachers. W. B. Curry who became the first headmaster of Dartington Hall School was one of these. Then Tibble tells briefly the story of Dartington which arose from the Utopian vision of Dorothy and Leonard Elmhirst. As he says Utopias and sound practical schemes so often go hand in hand. He describes how the school came into the general plan of the estate as a whole and how it has grown and changed since.

In the second phase of his argument Professor Tibble writes of the variations of the traditional pattern of education made possible by the continuance of independent schools. He makes an exception however by noting the revolutionary changes that have taken place in maintained infant schools. There follows a characteristic Tibble passage with specks of irony, a gentle probing of facts that remain unexplained and a light personal note.

'When I visit an English infant school today it is a fundamentally different place from the infant school I attended as a boy in the first decade of this century; it is as different as Athens and Sparta, or an Esquimo village and a Samoan. No one has yet satisfactorily explained how and why this revolution came about or, equally in need of an explanation, why nothing like it happened in the education of older children within the state system or in the majority of independent schools outside it. Again this is not to deny that all sorts of changes have taken place there, including a general amelioration in the social climate, but they are not, in my view, fundamental changes . . .'

Curry looked for fundamental change and he left no one in doubt, Tibble says, about what his views were: about his strong objection to competition of any kind, his pacifist beliefs, and mistrust of nationalism in the narrow sense, so oddly reflected in 'those rather hysterical forms of school and team spirit which are often thought proper'. Curry's decided views on co-education are well known. He tried to place education in a family setting, with a good mother substitute at the head, he tried to ensure that the children enjoyed both privacy and a full society life.

Most readers of 'The New Era' are no doubt familiar with Curry's exposition of his ideas in 'Education for Sanity' the first book to be published by Heinemann in 'The International Book Club' series; in his lecture Tibble enlarges on these ideas with great skill. And he faces the inevitable question: 'Is that vision of 1930 out of date for 1968.'

'In these post-war topless and up to a point bottomless

MONTESSORI — 31.8.70 is the centenary of Dr Maria Montessori's birth. For information write Box 10, NEW ERA, Yew Tree Cottage, Roundabouts, Five Ashes, Mayfield, Sussex.

days, post "Lady Chatterley", post Teddy, post mod and rocker, with the flower folk in evidence and also, apart from the fun, certain grim problems of increase in delinquency, venereal infection and drug addiction, this fuss of the 1930s seems very dated and the questions very square.'

It is in the third movement of this carefully composed lecture that Professor Tibble brings us to the heart of the matter, to the case of Curry's sanity and his views on freedom and responsibility. Then we realise what a long way we are behind in state education today as a whole in the understanding of shared responsibility. We are, Professor Tibble points out, still bound to the dominance-submission mode of ordering human affairs so common in our western civilisation and a long way from one based upon group and reciprocal behaviour between individuals.

Yet how strange it is that after all these years we do not try to learn more about reciprocity since the other mode however benign has so obviously failed. Perhaps Curry did not recognise clearly enough the strength and peculiar composition of human aggression and the need to study this as scientifically as possible. After all, his ideas matured in line with Freud's theories of sexuality and before different though allied impulses were thought to be of equal importance. Such a school as Dartington with its faith and resources could perhaps with the help of all we are learning today through group methods — establish the kind of councils that would not only be directed to the self-government of the school and the self-control of its members but to a more fundamental understanding of how positive and negative factors function together creatively in our lives. Why should not schools be used as experimental laboratories and run for the investigation of child-adult relationships? In such an enterprise it would be necessary to call upon insights that Curry could hardly have entertained thirty years ago. A way needs to be found that employs at the same time as one is dealing with the child's immaturity, the strength derived from the recognition of one's own. Professor Tibble himself in his study of adolescent-adult groups is helping to create a basis from which such shared experimentation can proceed.

Though the work of linking inner and outer freedom is infinitely more complicated than even Curry realised yet his compassion and steadfast vision have given us the courage to re-assess for different times, the true complexity of our task. Meanwhile in this monograph it is good to find Bill Curry and Billy Tibble joining hands over the years under the aegis of a University imaginatively making room for the contemplation of methods and principles of learning and community living that it would not necessarily accept within its own organisation.

Marjorie L. Hourd.

Art and Belief

David W. Bolam and James L. Henderson
Hamish Hamilton, 30s

Dr Henderson, who will be well known to readers of this journal for his valuable work on behalf of the World Education Fellowship and for his stimulating editorials in *The New Era*, has conceived a series of books to investigate 'Twentieth Century Themes'. Under his editorship, four volumes are to be published by Hamish Hamilton each investigating a pair of themes that provide mutual illumination. These themes are **The Chainless Mind: A Study of Resistance and Liberation; Discovery and Invention; Poverty and Affluence**; and the present work, the first to be published, **Art and Belief**.

The book is divided into two unequal sections: the first two-thirds dealing with Art are written by Mr Bolam of the University of Keele, while the section on Belief is written by Dr Henderson himself. The whole is some 200 pages in length, and, even though it contains twelve plates to illustrate points made in the section on Art, I was disappointed that the publishers had priced the book so high. The reason for the price, however, becomes clear when one examines the book. This is no text-book. Although the chapters are conveniently sub-divided, there is no index. Moreover, the text is probably too difficult for anyone in a school but the bright Sixth-Former. The series is essentially for 'General Studies' work — suitable particularly, perhaps, for courses mounted at such institutions as the Technological Universities, Polytechnics and some Colleges of Education; and if I feel that the readership is likely to be narrow, this may be more a reflection on our system of education than on the level of writing at which Dr Henderson has pitched his series. The series after all is designed along attractive lines. Now that we have entered the second half of the twentieth century, there is a need to place the age in perspective. Barraclough's **Introduction to Contemporary History**, brilliant as it is, is very much the historian's point-of-view with considerable emphasis on political affairs. The present series will clearly be more akin to Michael Harrington's **Accidental Century**, though because of the four-volume organization, Dr Henderson and his colleagues will be able to plunge into issues in greater depth and yet provide sharper focus through the juxtaposition of the pairs of themes.

The themes of Art and Belief are both interpreted in the broadest possible sense. Art means here man's modes of creative self-expression — music, writing, the visual arts and even dance; Belief embraces all man's organized thoughts about himself and his relations with his society and with the supernatural. And, as one would expect from these authors, full attention is paid to non-Western movements in both spheres and the inter-action between the West and those parts of the world with non-European traditions. The potential range of material is therefore vast; yet both authors handle this material with impressive confidence. David Bolam's contribution, being by far the longer of the two, displays particularly broad learning — he even appends biographical notes on 48 of the 'less familiar artists mentioned in the text'! Yet it must not be thought that the book is little more than a biographical dictionary or lexicon of terms. Artists and thinkers speak for themselves in generous passages of quotations.

There are, however, positive messages. In the Preface Dr Henderson states that 'It is assumed that the study of world themes such as these must form a vital part of modern man's education for survival'. This particular volume is stronger on analysis than synthesis. Yet a coherence is provided by the consciousness of the global relevance of the problems studied: the underlying message is clear that the aesthetic and spiritual struggles of twentieth-century man are universal. The authors further make plain that Art and Belief rightly belong in a single volume; both are manifestations of man's search for self-knowledge. 'The fright of the mind before the unknown created not only the first gods, but also the first art.' Messrs Bolam and Henderson have examined the manifold terrors lurking in the mind of contemporary man and shown us the art and gods that have thus been engendered.

Denis Heater.

'Life is but thought'

Samuel Taylor Coleridge.

Residential Child Care — Facts & Fallacies

Rosemary Dinnage and M. L. Kellmer Pringle
Longmans; 30s

Foster Home Care — Facts & Fallacies

Rosemary Dinnage and M. L. Kellmer Pringle
Longmans; 30s

The Community's Children

Edited by Jessica Parfitt
Longmans; 15s

These three books are published in the series 'Studies in Child Development' and follow an earlier publication 'Adoption — Facts and Fallacies'.

The body responsible for the publication of these, and other valuable works on Child Care, is the National Bureau for Co-operation in Child Care. This body was founded in October 1963 with the purpose of improving communication between the various professions and agencies concerned with children and to carry out research and assist others wishing to do so.

The Director of the National Bureau, Mrs M. L. Kellmer Pringle B.A., Ph.D., Dip.Ed.Psych., has concerned herself with collecting and collating research and information in the field of child development and care and the first two of these books are under her joint authorship with Rosemary Dinnage.

Residential Child Care — Facts and Fallacies, is a work on recently completed research projects and it contains a wide variety of references to the work of agencies throughout the world. It is fundamentally a collection of thinking and is set out in a formal pattern of analysis of need as well as of practice.

Its companion volume, 'Foster Home Care — Facts and Fallacies', deals in a similar way with the specific problems of this form of caring for children who are unable to live in their own homes.

Both books contain Appendices of completed and ongoing research as well as comprehensive bibliographies.

The two volumes are very much for the professional despite the assertion that they claim to disseminate, with a minimum of technical jargon, research findings concerned with the development and needs of children. It is true that the language is straightforward and logical but the content is scientifically prepared and presented.

The third book, 'The Community's Children' is, in its own words:

'Written for anyone who wants to know what child care is really about, what it means to the children, their parents and the professional staff working with and for them.'

It contains contributions by eminent authorities in the field and has the merit of being extremely readable. The work is the result of the deliberations of a working party set up by the Association of Child Psychology and Psychiatry in collaboration with the National Bureau for Co-operation in Child Care and is edited by Dr Parfitt who is currently Principal Medical Officer in Child Psychiatry for the Greater London Council.

The book examines ways of caring and the problems of parents as well as the effect on children of being removed from their homes. As with the other volumes, there are Appendices covering statistics and the Laws relevant to Child Care, as well as a good bibliography.

For the layman who wants to have an insight of this branch of social work, and for the professional worker, this is a very useful addition to his library of fundamental knowledge.

George E. Maggs.

The Rainbow

D. H. Lawrence

Modern Novel Series with introduction by P. J. Shepherd
Heinemann 15s

This is an appropriate novel to select as the second reprint from the work of D. H. Lawrence in this series. The first was 'Sons and Lovers'.

For teachers in training and all students as well as for those who work in the field of education Lawrence has much to say. He was in line with modern thought in many matters especially his pre-occupation with creativity. He saw education as learning through experience rather than a matter of giving instruction of whatever quality.

In this novel the children are portrayed as living individuals, as is the inter-action upon each other of people in families, in schools and in communities. Problems of communication are a basic theme. A universal problem in a midland setting. This novel could be used for liberal studies groups, not only for students in colleges of education. Particularly appealing to modern students are, possibly, the observations about sincerity. Ursula says of some unaware adults, 'And all their talk and all their behaviour was sham. They were dressed up creatures.' Lawrence contrasts Ursula herself with these dressed up ones 'And it was the terrible core of all her suffering that she remained herself.'

These two quotations from the book illustrate the difference between the really educated who may never find happiness but who find 'real expression' which is something greater and the uneducated who do not find their own expression and self-realisation.

P. J. Shepherd is a sensitive and perceptive writer about Lawrence. His introductory commentary is thorough and thought-provoking. I wish it had been an appendix rather than an introduction because in a writer such as Lawrence students should read the novel itself as an immediate experience and then go to the commentary. A good critique might interfere with the first impact. T. S. Eliot says that although an 'enthusiastic essay' may be the accident that sets one reading a particular author 'in my experience I have always found that the less I knew about the poet and his work before I began to read it, the better.' Another comment on education through experience.

Elsie Fisher.

A Guidance and Counseling Series

Foreword from Dr Sam Everett

In response to the increase in interest in guidance among members of the World Education Fellowship, the US Section has arranged to submit to the **New Era** a series of articles on guidance and counseling and book reviews to appear over a period of months.

A Guidance Service: Educational and Vocational Information for Economically Disadvantaged Children

Goldie Ruth Kaback Professor of Education and coordinator of the Guidance and School Counseling program
The City College of the
City University of New York.

Guidance and Counseling, like general education in the United States, has had its pendulum swings over the past thirty or forty years. Beginning with an emphasis on 'vocational guidance;' 'help the individual choose an occupation, enter upon it, and succeed in it,' guidance counselors today are much more concerned with a child's interests, his economic status, his aspirational level, his abilities to succeed in a prescribed educational or vocational program, and whether he needs remediation to complete a basic level of education or encouraged to enter a local community or ivy league college. Many guidance and counseling services, however, still adhere to a 'gathering' and 'imparting' philosophy without reference to the emotional, social, and economic needs of children in relation to what is being 'gathered' and 'imparted.' And this is especially true for the economically disadvantaged children — the children in any community whose potential creative and productive powers are unknown and unused. They are the children whose test scores on standardized test batteries do not fall within the range of scores according to a prescribed set of norms. Their test results too often reflect only the life experiences of an economically disadvantaged community.¹

Yet were these children to be asked what they wanted to be ten, fifteen, or more years later, the responses would not be too dissimilar from those received from middle-class children: doctor, lawyer, engineer, nurse, teacher, airplane pilot, secretary, or ballplayer. The answers of their parents too would reflect a drive for upward vocational mobility, a known characteristic of the American way of life.

Although most schools and guidance counselors throughout the United States are trying to prepare economically disadvantaged children for an age of heightened industrial specialization and technology,

a statement or two about a few of the school guidance programs for economically disadvantaged children in New York City might serve to point up the strengths and limitations of such programs. Because the problems of children in New York City are the problems of children everywhere, the needs of New York City children are the needs of children elsewhere — what is being attempted for more than one million children should therefore be less difficult to try out in smaller less complicated school communities.

The New York City Higher Horizon program has attracted a good deal of attention. Begun in 1954 in a single junior high school located in a slum area of the city, it has gradually been expanded and adapted in a variety of forms to elementary and junior high schools located throughout the city. The original objective 'to discover and upgrade potential college material' has been broadened to include 'raising the cultural, educational and vocational sights of underprivileged children.' Successful outcomes from Higher Horizon and related programs can be enumerated by the score: many more pupils remain to graduate from high school; many more go on to college: truancy has been reduced; teacher turn-over in these programs has been stabilized; IQs have gone up as much as 30 points and more; programs of educational, vocational, and cultural activities have been extended.²

Early Identification and Prevention programs to detect physical and psychological problems of kindergarten to third grade children exist in many elementary schools located in slum areas. The more than one hundred Junior Guidance Classes include emotionally and socially disturbed children who might ordinarily be exempt from school. After-School Play and Tutorial groups exist in schools in disadvantaged areas for children who present serious adjustment or learning problems.

In addition to the several demonstration projects cited, there are the regular ongoing programs for the economically disadvantaged in the '600' schools for those who cannot adjust to regular school classes; provision for homebound children; hospital schools for the ill; special classes for the mentally retarded and the physically handicapped; special programs in vocational guidance to prepare those who are about to drop out of school, and

counseling services for those who have dropped out and who must attend continuation school until they reach the age of seventeen.

Throughout the numerous programs mentioned as well as others that have been started to assist economically disadvantaged children to adjust to classroom activities, the underlying theme has generally been to help them to prepare for an educational and vocational future that is in tune with a complex technological society.²

An aroused community, aware of its responsibilities, has and is continuing to allocate additional funds for increased educational and guidance purposes. Classroom teachers are being trained in an educational philosophy which stresses that the basic personal and vocational needs of the economically disadvantaged are no different from the basic personal and vocational needs of any other socio-economic group in the community. Parents of the economically disadvantaged children are becoming more and more involved in school and guidance issues. The guidance counselor is leaving the security of his desk and office to come in closer contact with the child's home, his church, his playground, his community center, and his social outlets in order to better understand the personal, educational, and vocational needs of his counselees. Parents and children have become involved in programs of occupational and educational information which they can understand — the use of films, posters, comic strips, and various other types of graphic displays, in addition to books and pamphlets. Small groups of more verbal parents have been organized to encourage the more hesitant parents to participate in educational and guidance activities at the school.

While an important guidance aim has been to stimulate parental interest in the future of children beyond the educational and vocational patterns with which parents are familiar, it has also become increasingly significant for the children to learn to recognize and to respect the contributions of parental occupations to the economy of the community, no matter how low on the status scale that occupation may be. Through various class exercises and discussions the children soon learn that semi-skilled and even unskilled workers also contribute to the welfare of the community through the repair of shoes and clothing, the delivery of

milk and vegetables, the cleaning of streets, the carting of garbage, the driving of buses and trucks. Guidance Counselors have introduced group guidance discussions about occupations that children know about before they begin to introduce information about jobs that children have heard about but have never experienced at first hand. During these group guidance sessions children talk about themselves, their problems, their hopes, their dreams. They are encouraged to survey the various types of jobs in their immediate surroundings and then helped to relate these jobs in terms of required training, ability, and experience.

Economically disadvantaged children are taken on trips to industry and to schools and colleges so that they might see for themselves that former economically disadvantaged are studying or carrying on skilled and professional functions. They discuss the interrelatedness of different level jobs and how the range of jobs in any occupation contributes to the whole. They gradually begin to develop attitudes of respect for what can be done even with a minimum of ability and aptitude. They begin to identify with models who have made the grade even when such models do not exist in their own homes.

Librarians, administrators, and guidance counselors, all working together, have expanded school library facilities to include not only books and pamphlets on educational and vocational opportunities but also audio-visual materials that are realistic and in tune with the experiences of the economically disadvantaged. Film strips and TV programs developed by the New York City Board of Education which portray scenes that these children know about and can understand are presented on a regular basis. In the past, educational and vocational information relied almost exclusively on the spoken or written word; today the message is also proclaimed through pictures and posters and field trips, career conferences, career booklets which the children themselves develop, bulletin boards, invited speakers, assembly programs, and other activities that any well-trained guidance counselor is familiar with. However, the implementation of educational and vocational information for economically disadvantaged children without the personal interest and increased personal efforts of administration, teaching and guidance staff can

become a meaningless gesture.

In this connection, the recruitment of highly selected Big Brothers and Big Sisters in Guidance from among retired individuals of Golden Age Clubs, from women's organizations and service clubs like the Rotarians and the Kiwanis, and others to introduce economically disadvantaged children to experiences that middle-class children and their parents take for granted would be extremely productive for the children and full-filling for the adult. A visit to a large office with a Big Sister who could interpret what the attractive typists were doing, to make comments about their clothes, their make-up, their hair-dos, what they have to know in order to type, to file, to run a business machine, would probably do more to motivate an economically disadvantaged girl than dozens of pamphlets and books used without personal intervention. A visit to a high school or college campus with a Big Brother who could explain the curriculum, the laboratories, the use of the libraries would do more to motivate an economically disadvantaged boy than three dozen career day speakers 'who have their way and then go away.' The feeling that someone is personally interested, that someone cares, may make the difference between dropping out of school or continuing to develop educational and vocational plans commensurate with ability and potential.

Perhaps our economically disadvantaged children could be afforded some of the same opportunities that boys and girls from foreign countries experience each year when they are invited to live with American children in order to learn about the American way of life. Many of our economically disadvantaged children have never had the opportunity of being with, let alone living with, a middle-or-upper-class family in order to experience at first hand the meaning of family living, definite study hours in a well-lit, well-ventilated room, with books, magazines, and papers that middle-class homes take for granted.

The ingredients that motivate economically disadvantaged children in the direction of suitable educational and vocational planning are personal acceptance, personal effort, and personal interest on the part of the administration, teachers, counselors and the community. The wonder of it all is that teachers and counselors have been able

to accomplish as much as they have under adverse conditions; the wonder of it all is that economically disadvantaged children have continued to survive and to do as well as many of them have under the circumstances.

Footnotes

1. For historical background see Harry N. Rivlin, 'Urban Schools and their Teachers', *The New Era*, Vol. 45, Number 8, October 1964.
2. An example of vocational-general education study is the article by Grace Brennan, 'Cooperative Education in the High Schools of New York City', *The New Era*, Vol. 44, Number 5, May 1963.

Young Adult Project

*Extracts from a report sponsored by the
Christian Teamwork Institute of Education
and written by its project officer
John Balzalgette M.A., Dip.Ed.*

Setting up the Project

This report covers work done during the period 1st October 1966 to 30th September 1967 in a project investigating ways of helping adolescents make the transition to a full adult role in society. The Project has been entitled 'The Young Adult Resource Project' since it is concerned with exploring resources needed to help young people in making this transition. The Project Officer, Mr John Balzalgette, has worked under the supervision of the Rev. Bruce Reed, Director of Christian Teamwork Institute of Education, and in collaboration with the Management Council of the Elizabeth Whitelaw Reid Club in Islington. The Project has been based on the EWR Club but has extended beyond it to other parts of Islington.

Professor J. W. Tibble was chairman of the steering committee which was set up.

In the first place it has been necessary to build up groups of young people with whom to work. The Elizabeth Whitelaw Reid Club has provided one such group. Mr Balzalgette's original brief included that of helping a team of voluntary leaders to establish a Club for 14-20 year old young people.

Meanwhile the existing team began to re-establish contact with ex-members of an Intermediate Club

(age limit 15) which had closed in the summer, with a view to finding from amongst them a group who would be prepared to join with the team in forming a Committee to open the Club. By the middle of January a Committee had been formed, with representatives of the team and young people on it. This Committee opened the Club at the end of the month.

In addition to developing these contacts the Project Officer also spent time walking around Islington observing the lives of young people and trying to make casual contacts in coffee bars, pubs and in the streets. Though this provided a partial picture of the habits of young adults in the area and helped to develop an awareness of the atmosphere of some parts of Islington, it did not lead to any contacts which might have had a more permanent nature.

Once the plans for the opening of the Club had begun to move the Project Officer began to make approaches to people of significance in the Borough, particularly those who had connections of some kind with young people. The reason was two-fold. In the first place it was planned that the Club should be developed in such a way as to become a link for the members with the 'strong points' of the Islington community. That is, that once young adults had settled in the Club, ways would be sought of introducing them to people in Islington representing the different kinds of resources available in the Borough, who were prepared to develop relationships with small groups of young people in an informal way.

Secondly, it was clear to the Project Officer that working with casual groups of young people would be of limited value. Though he had made contacts with those to whom the title of 'unattached' might be applied, it was apparent that to try to expand work in that context would seem to encourage a denial of the fact that all these young people do have attachments to the rest of the community and it would be more helpful to their development to learn to explore these attachments and make use of them.

By March two schools and one place of employment had agreed to allow work to be started with people for whom they had a responsibility. Possibilities of working with people

on probation were also being explored. In addition to this a number of individuals had agreed to think about meeting members of the EWR Club and developing relationships with them.

By the end of the summer, through the EWR Club, the Lyndhurst Club in Kentish Town, work with those at school and in employment and a number of other pieces of work, the Project Officer had been in contact with over 200 people between the ages of 12 and 21. In the greater number of cases his work continues, making up the core of the Project.

Background Theory and Assumptions.

As a basis for setting up the Project certain assumptions were made, and during the course of the year they have begun to form a conceptual framework for further development of the Project.

It is not new to say that the problems of adolescents concern their search for identity. Professor Erikson, A. T. Jersild and others have specifically called it the 'adolescent crisis of identity' and the 'search for self.' In the middle-teen years each person is seeking to establish his own individuality separate from his parents, his teachers, his employers and other authority figures. The young adult is unwilling to submit without questioning to the authority of these figures; he wishes to test his own power against them; to match his own judgment against that of adults. However, the limitation of this approach is that it concentrates on adolescents as individuals and does not sufficiently consider their interaction with other people. This means that studies of their development and ways of helping them need to take account of the relationships in which they find themselves at home, at school, at work, in clubs, etc., and to examine these relationships from all points of view, and in particular not only those of the young person, but also those of the adult.

The assumption has therefore been made that young adults can be helped to understand themselves by enabling them to study problems concerned with the nature of authority. This involves helping them to see the authority structures of which they are members.

Young people between the ages of 14 and 21 are

in the process of changing their relationship with their immediate family structure and finding themselves either voluntarily or involuntarily involved in new structures. They can understand this transition only by perceiving their own roles in these structures and that of others, particularly those who have designated authority roles.

It has also been assumed that when a person is able to define his role in a structure the boundaries he delineates, including those concerned with authority, enable him to use the resources the structure provides without necessarily feeling threatened by resource persons. When this process becomes the basis for personal behaviour it helps the person concerned to experience freedom.

The Christian religion has ways of describing relationships between man and God, and between man and man. It is here assumed that a study of the way these relationships are described is valuable for understanding the relationships central to this Project.

The work of Dr W. R. Bion on behaviour in small groups and that of Dr A. K. Rice on organisation theory has been assumed as a useful way of interpreting human behaviour.

From these general assumptions a number of working hypotheses have been constructed. While they provide the present models for the Project, they are being continually subjected to testing as the Project develops and may be ultimately modified. They are as follows.

The problem of the use of authority is the central problem of young people between the ages of 14 and 21.

In order to understand the nature of authority it is necessary to learn to recognise the structures of society, roles, boundaries and resources. For young people this can be best done in the first place in structures such as those at work or at school rather than in the family.

The resource persons most useful to young people in their development are those who are aware of their roles in the authority structure of society and are also able to take this into account

in their relationships with young people.

To enable young people to explore the use of authority it is necessary to find or create situations where they can learn from their experience of relationships with those in authority.

Some Interim Findings to Date.

At the present moment it is not possible to make statements of definitive findings; the problems of young adults that are being identified are extremely complex, and as work has continued statements made in early stages have required modification or extension. What can be confirmed is that the assumptions about authority are proving useful in all the experience so far accumulated. The picture that young adults have of those in authority is one of oppressors. When asked to list people with whom they find themselves in conflict such a list is almost entirely made up of those in positions of authority. Since the assumption young people make is that those in authority constitute threats, this affects the way in which they view the services which such people might offer them. It colours their relationship with their teachers, youth employment officers, child care officers, probation officers, the police, their employers. The problem is not helped by the fact that adults offering these services see themselves as being helpful to young people and are often unable to understand the hostility which their clients show towards them. This has emerged very clearly in two particular small group meetings at which a probation officer and a youth employment officer were the visitors. The probation officer behaved in a way which made it clear that he thought of himself as a friendly and helpful person. The young adults saw him as a punishing figure and would not respond to his friendliness.

The second aspect has become apparent in cases of those with a particularly disturbed home background. Young people who are under the supervision of the Children's Department, or the Probation and After-care Service are extremely conscious that they have only a limited amount of freedom in their lives. In their minds their ability to leave their jobs represents a symbol of freedom and it has been noticeable how some of those contacted in the last year have left their jobs when pressure has built up in other parts of their lives, not because they were tired of the work or

dissatisfied with the state of affairs, but rather because it was a demonstration of their freedom to do this.

One of the features of the behaviour of young people in unskilled work, which has also been apparent elsewhere, has been the great difficulty which they seem to have in facing endings. It seems that most of the relationships which have to be terminated are broken off abruptly, often before the time recognised by those in authority. Boys leave work suddenly and sometimes do not even call back to collect what pay is due to them.

In all the groups that have been run, one of the interesting things to emerge has been the way in which young people who exhibit near-delinquent behaviour are able to make the most constructive use of the sessions. In all of the groups run for schools the most valuable contributions have come from those who seem to present most problems in the ordinary class-room situation; in fact, the most consistent attenders in three of the groups have said that these sessions are the only 'lessons' they never miss. It seems that the small-group situation provides a secure framework within which they are able to make constructive use of parts of themselves which get out of hand in the classroom large-group situation. A clear example of this can be seen in the case of a boy who was originally met in a class of 27 where he presented considerable problems with his shouting of obscenities and behaviour which was calculated to disturb. After the end of the Easter term he turned up at a place of employment where the small-group work was being done with young employees. Though his language was not moderated, his contributions and questions to those in authority were searching and thoughtful. It was clear that he could now develop a more mature pattern of behaviour than he had previously shown. Further evidence of this kind will be found in the Appendices.

In addition to providing a setting in which more unruly young people find it possible to operate it seems that the groups experiences have some carry-over to other situations. In the group of 10 young men working as van boys it was noted that three months after the group had ended all except 3 were still with the same employers. Of those who had left, one had gone to work in his father's restaurant, another had started training as a

welder and only one had left for no clearly discernible reason. This is in the job in which over the same period the firm had taken on and lost some 20 other young men, and this is a firm which has a good reputation for looking after its employees.

One of the things which has emerged increasingly has been that the world in which these young people find themselves is confusing and meaningless. They are unable to see stable points, boundaries or structures within which they themselves have a place. There are few strong-points on which they can depend or boundaries which are secure. They feel that their parents are unable to help them, that teachers respond in unpredictable ways, that the police treat them as criminals. If they try hard enough they seem to be able to get most people in positions of authority to undermine their own position by not exercising their power justly; the result is that they feel exposed and seek refuge in small groups of people their own age facing a world which is hostile to them. This robs them of freedom to explore life since they are often filled with an almost overwhelming fear; fear of those in authority and also fear of groups of their own contemporaries.

One tentative conclusion which can be drawn from this is that the problems which one finds being acted out by young people in our present society are not basically their own problems, but rather the problems of adult society. If those in authority, who should be able to provide the stable points and control boundaries in the community, have failed to do this for young people, the consequence is bound to be groups who are confused and seemingly aimless. The intention of pointing this out is not to minimise the pressures to which teachers, employers, youth leaders and others in society are subjected by young people, but rather to indicate that failure on the part of the adult world to cope with these pressures results in even greater efforts on the part of young people to test the authority of those set over them. This should be interpreted as a cry for help and not simply as an expression of hostility.

The experience of the nature of authority in club situations as they arise, and the interpretation of the experiences in these situations as the club members look at them together with the adults

with whom they share them, helps the young people to understand and cope with their life outside the Club, in the neighbourhood (important in places like Islington and Kentish Town), the home, and the place of work. Members have made such comments as 'Being on the Committee helps us learn about the problems our bosses have to face'. Examples of the similarities of the two Clubs' experiences can be further seen in their newsletters which constitute appendices to this Report.

It has become apparent that some of the most valuable work in the long run has been done, not inside the Clubs but in the homes of team members or on outings away from Club life. This implies that the value of a youth club in the long run is that it becomes a meeting place for adults and young people who develop their relationships in other situations. This means that efforts should be made to find ways of associating as many different kinds of adult with members of youth clubs so as to provide a wide variety of different kinds of relationship with them. Most of these adults need not be involved in the running of the Club at all but should be seen as extensions running from the Club to the wider community.

The club can do little, sometimes nothing, to prevent these outside events or activities. However, it can be very important when the club can help the members, at the problem point of interaction, to cope with the stresses but it is important that this is seen as the real issue, and that the members should not be made to feel by the adults involved in the club that there should be a loyalty to the club per se, which really reflects the adults concern for its successful organisation as a club.

But more important than all this, the central problem of young people is not the use of their leisure but their work. A young Frenchman has been quoted in the Guardian as saying 'Adults wrongly link the problems of youth with leisure. This is not the principal aspect of our real pre-occupations. Organising our leisure is, above all, a means for adults to ease their conscience. Our main worry is our professional future'. Therefore it seems probable that the real urgency for the policy makers of our society is that they should devote maximum financial and human resources to

wards supporting young people at work. This would result in many more young people being able to handle their leisure time constructively.

Editorial Note

This issue was nearly ready for press when the Teachers' Working Party on 'Counselling in secondary schools' happened at Institute of Education in London just after Easter. It was a very good two days indeed. Both the plenary sessions, with short addresses and discussions and the group discussions. In the groups members put at the general disposal considerable experience and the outcome was an agreement that the subject of counselling needed much study and discussion at depth with experiment in the field as well before general policies could be formulated. Most members left the last session having in some way modified their own preconceived notions on the subject without in any way underestimating its importance. It was a pleasure to participate in a working party which was so cold for certainty, to alter the proverb. We could thank our chairman Raymond King, our secretary John Wallbridge, our speakers and the members not the least Irene Caspari for this suitably detached and yet human approach to the education of the emotions. John Wallbridge raised the question of reactions to authority. Everyone put off the question and then returned to it and most are pondering it still.

The members of the conference are given below with the speakers asterisked. We shall be printing the text of H. J. F. Taylor's talk and some notes of Irene Caspari's contribution and Mrs E. M. Eisenklam's text of a lively glimpse of the field about which some of us have time to theorise. Other articles are to be printed from members of the conference in early issues. July will feature the main reports with a general report in June.

EASTER CONFERENCE

*H. J. F. Taylor; Senior Educational Psychologist,
London Borough of Hillingdon.

Dr M. E. B. Johnson; Lecturer.

Mr F. Braley; Youth Tutor, Adwick High School.

Mrs Rose Hacker; Voluntary Counsellor for Marriage
Guidance Council.

Mrs P. Weinstein; School Counsellor, Edith Cavell School.

Mr F. H. Roberts; Teacher/School Counsellor and Counselling Psychologist.

Mrs Helen Corkery; Dept. Head Red. Dept. Diploma Ed. Malad. Children.

*Mrs E. M. Eisenklam; Youth Persons Adviser, Staff Parliament Hill.

Mr T. Glover; English Teacher.

Miss M. Coates; Teacher.

Mr J. M. Scott; Headmaster, Smallberry Green Sec. School.

Miss J. E. Leonard; Acting Head, William Edwards School.

Mr D. Duttson; Primary School Teacher.

Mr J. F. Hemming; Psychologist.

Miss D. E. Robinson; PSW (Ret.)

Mr K. Portman; Headmaster.

Mr D. H. Hewett; Head of RE Department and CSE Administration.

Mrs F. Kaplan; Infant Teacher/Ex Social Worker.

Mrs J. Ball; Assistant Mistress.

Miss J. Banks; Deputy Head, Day School for Maladjusted Children (Aston, Ealing).

Mr C. A. Bell; Student.

Mr A. J. Inson; English Teacher.

Miss M. C. Virgo; English & Drama Teacher.

Mr A. G. Foot; Science Teacher.

Mr D. M. Anthony; DASE Course (Counselling) Keele Univ.

Miss Y. Moyse; Gen. Secretary WEF.

Miss M. Hart; Adviser, Lond. Bor. of Haringey.

Mrs J. James; Adviser, Lond. Bor. of Haringey.

*Miss B. Jones; Headmistress, Carlton Sec. School.

Miss K. M. Voller; General Inspector of Education, Surrey. At present running a course for Heads on Counselling.

Miss A. Martin; New Era Editorial Board.

Miss E. Fisher; Editor, New Era.

Mr H. R. King; Chairman of Conference.

*Mr John Wallbridge; Headmaster.

Mr V. V. Sheen; Counsellor/Remedial.

Miss L. J. Paes; Assistant Mistress, English.

Miss I. Silvester; Careers Mistress, Leyton High School.

*Miss I. Caspari; Tavistock Clinic.

Miss J. Sidders; Teacher & Social Worker also Group Counsellor.

Mrs E. Rabin.

Caroline Nicholson; visitor.

Miss Pratt; lecturer.

Teaching Mathematics

A. E. Howard, W. Farmer, R. A. Blackman
Longmans; 17s 6d

From the view that any educational system is a vehicle for the transmission of culture and that it therefore has sociological survival value, it is interesting to survey our own educational system and assess the importance of each curricular activity in these terms. Mathematics must be high on the list for survival value (consider our schools not teaching Mathematics for a generation) and because it is, as a well-taught subject, now firmly on a terrifyingly downward spiral, it was with a mixture of

apprehension and hope that I read this book. I can say straight away that my apprehension was unnecessary and that my hope is now high, if only this book has a wide circulation.

The first chapter, Why Teach Mathematics, describes the change in teaching aims over the centuries and lists just about all the possible ones except that which would parallel Basil Bernstein's claims for verbal thinking, that is, that Mathematics develops non-verbal, spatial thinking and is probably as important as verbal thinking in intellectual development.

The chapter on Mathematics in Primary and Secondary Schools is full of good sense and mentions the importance of number work at a young age, the introduction to geometry and measurement, and the approach is in line with modern thought on these topics. Not knowing the authors' text-books, references to them were meaningless but I noted with interest that the approach used in them is claimed to be non-traditional although the abbreviated syllabus looked traditional to me with the inclusion of some Euclidean geometry. A brief comment on the Mathematics Laboratory, however, underlines the non-traditional approach.

The New Approach to Examining and Testing chapter should be interesting to those who are not satisfied with conventional testing methods. From the view that examinations can determine much of the teaching of a subject (but shouldn't, of course), I am all for new testing techniques which will compel teachers into new methods and approaches.

In discussing The Teacher of Mathematics, the downward spiral in this subject is pointed out and, I am pleased to report, in strong language. Everyone, not only those within the educational system, must be made aware of 'the disastrous lack of able and qualified Mathematicians, and therefore of Mathematics teachers which exists today' because it is such a serious question of national survival and 'There can be no doubt that extraordinary methods must be used to overcome the shortage of teachers of Mathematics' (with descriptions of some extraordinary possibilities) at least uses strong language in pointing out this situation to the reader. As the authors write, Colleges of Education could do much more in solving the problem but action should be taken right through the system. I heartily concur because until all (especially those concerned in education), appreciate the urgency we will muddle along to the point of no return, in no time at all.

I found the authors' chapters on the Mathematics Department somewhat prosaic but it was admitted that their remarks were referring to the Mathematics Department in a Comprehensive School. Setting is defended (what will the non-streamers say to this?) and I did get the impression that structural work and practical experiments could only be carried out in the Mathematics Laboratory. Remarks on the Mathematics teacher I found philosophical rather than practical, although it is important that teachers know their objectives and this knowledge, of course, stems from a philosophy. Mind you, all the right things are said about the philosophy.

Traditional topics are laid out in a beautifully developmental sequence with advice and justifications, and Modern Maths, after a detailed and fascinating discourse on general educational theory from the 1850s through Montessori, Piaget and the Moderns (Thwaites, Skemp, Matthews, Hope and so on), challenge all teachers of Mathematics not to ignore modern trends.

The next chapter, Modern Maths in History, should be

studied by all who think Mathematics to be the rote-learning of absolutes and techniques and that its laws are concerned with truth and so forever unchangeable.

The last chapter, *Modern Maths in the Classroom*, very early makes the remarks that 'Class instruction in the traditional mode must be kept to the minimum for, as we have seen, the giving and memorising of definitions does not necessarily mean the grasping and learning of the ideas'. It also quotes, 'Euclid must go', from which premise the authors suggest a host of modern topics for substitution. This really is the point of the whole book — that is, that school Mathematics is undergoing tremendously exciting changes and 'Mathematics teachers must endeavour to combine the best elements from the old with the best from the new' and 'the creativity and curiosity of our pupils must be harnessed so that both interest and ability are developed to the maximum'.

A timely and very helpful book from which teachers can extract a useful trad., modern, or trad./modern syllabus (and all philosophical arguments for their choice) and, most important, it is a book which should be read by all Head Teachers (especially Arts people), all lecturers in Colleges of Education and any Inspector who is not aware of the present state of Mathematics in this country, because it states the case so succinctly.

There are not many books written on this subject which are both useful to teachers and of serious interest to educationists. We must do something, and quickly, about the teaching of Mathematics in this country — this book not only says so in unequivocal terms but also suggests what can be done.

Bertram Banks.

W.E.F. CANADA

We extend a very warm welcome to the newly formed branch of the World Education Fellowship which is being organised in Ottawa, Canada.

It has started its life with 9 members, of which the following form the Executive:

President: Dr. A. P. Ramunas

Vice-President: Mr. R. A. Russell

Secretary/Treasurer: Mrs. Sandra Rivington

Dr. Ramunas is Professor of Education and Psychology at the University of Ottawa, and readers may remember that he contributed a most interesting article to the January issue of the *NEW ERA* on Canada's Educational Revolution. We, in England, wish them well in their venture, and hope that this is only the beginning of a lively and ever increasing interest in the W.E.F. and the *NEW ERA* in Canada.

We trust that the information of this pioneer branch will stimulate and encourage others to form new centres in other cities of this great country.

BOOKS RECEIVED

The Hawkspur Experiment

David Wills, G. Allen & Unwin, 24s.

Time Past & Time Present Books 1-5

A. J. C. Kerr, Pergamon 15s. each.

Mathematics & the Conditions of Learning

J. B. Briggs, Nat. Found. for Edu. Research, 55s.

Oscar Otter

N. Brenchley, The Worlds Work, 12s 6d.

The Seeret Elephant

C. Marsden, The Worlds Work, 18s.

Does Poppy Live Here?

A. S. Gregor, The Worlds Work, 16s.

Audio-Visual German

C. V. Russell, Pergamon, 5s.

Chinese Paper Folding

Mating Soong, The Worlds Work, 5s.

Enquiries in Chemistry — The Allotropy of Carbon & Sulphur

D. Layton, Oliver & Boyd, 4s. 6d.

Disordered Lives an interpersonal account

D. Hooper & J. Roberts, Longmans, 10s. 6d.

Spain — A Brief History

P. Vilar, Pergamon, 25s.

The Giants of Asia

S. Hugh-Jones, Allen & Unwin, 25s.

A Teacher's Guide to Tests

S. Jackson, Longmans, 13s. 6d.

The English Life Series — Books 1-3

G. Wills, Pergamon, 18s. each.

Every Day Life — Books 5-8

H. Adams, Cassell 5s. each.

Wide Range Quiz Books 3 & 4

F. J. Schonell, Oliver & Boyd, 3s each.

Scope Books 3 & 4

A. Elliott-Cannon & C. V. Burgess, Oliver & Boyd, 4s. 9d. each.

The Swedish Comprehensive School

Sixten Marklund & Pär Söderberg, Longmans, 15s.

Comprendre

Edited by S. Elengorn, Methuen, 7s. 6d.

Bits & Pieces — A Series

Joan Tate, Heinemann, 3s. each.

Response to Special Schooling

P. Williams & E. Gruber, Longmans, 15s.

How to read Local Archives 1550-1700

F. G. Emmison, Historical Assn. 3s. 6d. each.

Improvisation

J. Hodgson & E. Richards, Methuen, 12s. 6d.

Read, Write & Draw Books 3 & 4

Ruth Bell, Longmans, 3s each.

Creative Education and the Musician

by Antony Brackenbury

Why all this talk about creative education? We have been for it for years in the same way that the preacher was against sin, but we are still looking round for definitions to reassure ourselves that we are on the side of the angels. We do not have to look further than the eloquent restatement by Professor Ben Morris in the March issue of the 'New Era'. Yet I cannot help feeling we need a reminder from Lao Tse: 'Why all this prating about charity and duty to one's neighbour (and shall we not add creativity?) as though searching for a fugitive with a big drum?.'

This concern about creativity strikes me as a cry of alarm from a society which has come to recognize in itself the symptoms of sterility. Maybe there is an element of sterility in most teachers, which works itself out as an exaggerated concern for creativity in the younger generation. Those who can, do; those who can't, compensate by trying to get the children to do it for them. In the midst of all our own zeal, should we not remember that there is also such a thing as letting alone? Children, unless they have been seriously damaged by their parents, are naturally full of creative and destructive energy. Every man is a special kind of artist, says Cormaraswamy, the artist is not a special kind of man. If this is true then the lesson for the teacher is that he should unearth the artist in himself and put as few obstacles to creativity as possible in the way of his pupils. Unearthing the artist is for some of us a laborious and painful process, as our own unique emotional responses get buried under heaps of dead learning and dead living. I guess that for other teachers beside myself, the problem which we externalise with so much evidence of good will lies uncomfortably nearer home. Creative education is always liable to break out in any school where it is not actually prevented and obstructed by the grown ups. If the adults are afraid, as they are more often in secondary than in primary schools, they will want to dominate and impose their will: then the children will be resentful and antagonistic and creativity denied to everyone. But if the adults are at ease and see the children

come to no harm and listen to them, then the children will be at ease too and creativity at any rate has a chance.

Dr Hudson, in his interesting book 'Contrary Imaginations', lets fall a quite different definition of creativity. 'Real creativity', he says 'is excellence in the arts or sciences'. This dictum would be readily accepted, I suspect, by most of the musicians who teach at the Menuhin School. The system here is really one of apprenticeship. The children learn in the main from men and women who are active performers, who do not depend upon teaching to earn their living. If the child misses a lesson it is because his master is playing in Edinburgh or even in America. If he is learning the violin, he will now and then have a lesson from Mr Menuhin. Why only now and then? Because the demands of Mr Menuhin's concert programmes often take him inaccessibly far away. In fact the better the master-performer, the more insistent these other demands will be. But at all events, the child from the start becomes acquainted with excellence, as any apprentice would in the studio of a master craftsman. And the training he or she receives is as far removed as can be imagined from free self-expression. It is physically as unnatural and artificial as classical ballet, and demands extraordinary perseverance at purely technical studies. Playing just to amuse yourself or your friends is frowned upon; that is how good habits, in the course of careful formation, are heedlessly undone. And in this daily work they learn, without the word being mentioned, something of the meaning of discipline which is not far removed from discipleship. This is the work willingly undertaken without which the freedom of their instrument is denied them. But once that freedom is won, they enter a world of music making that can bring delight not only to themselves but to untold numbers of other people; to all of us in fact who love to hear music finely played, from the simplest sonatina to the most difficult Bartok quartet.

Clearly this sort of musical training is only for the few who, before it all starts, have unusual gifts. The four year old who, perched in the barber's chair murmurs 'B flat' when the electric clippers are switched on, has the sense of pitch all right. But he needs too a natural feeling for

rhythm and, above all, such an insatiable appetite for music that without it he is hungry and deprived. But if a child has this musical equipment built in, he will probably not only stay the course but thrive on it.

Yet this is far from being the whole story. Besides being a musician he is also a child and a member of our complex society. Who are these children, and when they are not in the hands of the master musicians, what are they up to?

The school has only been in existence at Stoke D'Abernon since 1964 and as the total capacity is no more than thirty-four boys and girls, we have no information of any statistical significance. All the same, some facts may be of interest. To begin with the pupils found the school, or rather the adults concerned did, and not vice-versa. What attracted them was of course the unique opportunities for musical training, and not many parents have paused to consider what was to happen to their children when they weren't studying music. All the factors which are usually weighed in the balance when a school is a matter of choice, whether it be day or boarding, country or town, co-educational or single sex, traditional or progressive, all this was as it were accidental and has had to be digested willy-nilly along with the main dish. This suggests a rather narrow view being taken of the children concerned, as if there was no question about the line of their future development. In many instances it is true that it looks as if the children would have to suffer a radical change of nature not to become fully grown musicians when they are half-grown musicians already. But some, particularly if they are the children of musical parents who perhaps for some reason have not realised their own full potential, are obviously in danger of becoming the subject of parental ambitions. Of course it is not easy for the parents of talented children 'to care and not to care'. Fundamentally, the child needs parents who will support rather than criticize his deviation towards music. When I came across a letter from an unconvinced father enjoining his small son to 'work hard in school or else when you grow up you will starve', I knew irreparable damage had already been done. Yet it makes me shudder as much to be told with pride by the mother of another child: 'When she was quite small

practice always came first. If she wanted to go out and play with other children we would ask her first 'Do you want to be a great pianist or not?' And she would always choose the piano'. But, after all, these are the exceptions. By and large most parents do love their children more than their successes.

It appears that musical talent of the calibre I have outlined is fairly widespread. Several L.E.As send us more than one child, though the majority of course send us none at all. Presumably this is because some know of our existence while others do not, or, if they do, are not prepared to gamble on sending us a pupil until we have some results to show them. My guess is that there are probably two or three children of this kind, within the age range 8-12, in most L.E.As, and this adds up to a very large reservoir of talent. Our present intake is limited to six each year and for various reasons, both educational and economic, we would be reluctant to see that number much increased. Educationally, because the school is *faute-de-mieux* a boarding school in which the children may spend the greater part of their lives for a number of years, and therefore it needs to be a home-from-home, an enlarged musical family; and I doubt if this is possible if numbers go much above fifty. Economically, because in the first place we run at a net loss that will only increase with the size of the school, and secondly, we have to beware of training more performers than the market can absorb.

Socially the childrens' origins are as diverse as can be, although there is a strong middle-class element in which the children whose parents are themselves professional musicians predominate. Several families produce more than one very musical child and one of these is a family with no previous musical affiliations.

A similar diversity is found in the range of their I.Qs: that is from below 100 to above 160. This seems to have little, if any, correlation with their musical performance, a most coveted scholarship having been won by a pupil with an I.Q. of 111. This variation has of course caused us difficulties on the side of their general education, because it is hard to provide in a small school a wide enough variety of activities from which

apt choices can be made. But so far, by extending the practical range to include poultry keeping and cooking, and the theoretical to include additional mathematics, we have managed to accommodate everyone.

It is here in the field of their general education and in the overall ambience of the school that the principles enunciated for so long in the 'New Era' are seen to be at work. Of course we have to accept compromise solutions, but every school compromises somewhere along the line from absolute authoritarianism to total anarchy.

The quality of the staff is far the most important thing. It is however impossible to isolate any single characteristic which makes a person a valuable contributor to such a community. He has to be trustable, self-confident without being self-important, firmly rooted and yet still growing, at ease with young people and without them. To be more precise the cook must cook well and have no doubts about it. Then, if she is also happy to have children in her kitchen and yet has the authority to turn them out at a moments notice when she thinks fit, then very probably both professionally and personally the school is being well served. Particularly in a place where the tide of music runs at such a pace it is important to find people who will establish such secure islands where other mysteries have pride of place. An art studio inhabited by a live painter; a workshop where the craftsmen can be found at his bench meticulously putting the finishing touches to a record cabinet. Let such islands of self-determined excellence abound and let them appear in the scholastic world as well. Children value what they see to be valued by grown-ups, and if much education is a waste of time it is partly because they are not easily hoodwinked into giving their attention to things which the adult world ignores as of no concern. At Stoke D'Abernon we are helped rather than hindered by not having very much time at our disposal. If a child spends at least three hours each day on music, the most you can expect him to give to his school lessons is five forty minute sessions. For besides that he (or she) will want to play tennis or football, act plays or climb trees, dance or read, keep pets, play chess, or lie about, visit an automatic signal box or a zoo, give a birthday party, sit and talk.

This is a regimen which when examined externally produces a perfectly adequate array of Professor Morris's pseudo-achievements. More closely observed, it seems partly by chance to steer its way between the Scylla of happy-go-lucky licence and the Charybdis of imposed hardship. Dr Hudson says that happy children simply may not be prepared to make the effort which excellence demands. I do not believe this.

Muriel Payne in her fascinating if very uneven book 'Creative Education' has something relevant to say about this. She observed how children, in hospital in the first instance, were powerfully affected by what she calls the 'Tone' of the people looking after them. Tone in this context really indicates a state of mental health. Unhappy neurotic adults have a lowering effect on children, they invalidate them, and their performance as pupils suffers. It seems to me that happiness, like creativity or life itself, is something that you can take away from children, but none of these are things we can provide. The most we can do is to provide the conditions in which children can grow, what Dr Winnicott has called a facilitating environment. The worst of all is to have unhappy sterile adults pressing children to take lessons (or food) for which they have no appetite and then rapping them over the knuckles for not doing as they are told. The reverse of this should then show us optimum conditions. That is to say, when the child chooses as far as possible what he is to do and is then encouraged to do it well by someone whose well being is independent of the child's success, and who can be as exacting as you like. The child who is musically gifted and who is encouraged to excel, builds up a reserve of joy and confidence, that carries over into other fields. And if for an instrumentalist the demands of his craft are often narrowly technical and allow little room for spontaneity, then this other side of his nature must have a chance to develop in the other sides of his education. Creativity defined as excellence in the art of music must be balanced by creativity in the sense of unhampered growth in the other arts of living.

Liam Hudson. *Contrary Imaginations*. Penguin.

Muriel Payne. *Creative Education*. Maclellan.

This article is a revised version of my lecture given to a NEF working party at the Institute of Education, London on Wednesday, April 17th, 1968

'Issues in School Counselling'

by H. J. F. Taylor, M.A. (Cantab), Dip. Ed.,
A.B.Ps.S.

One of the assumptions that is often made about counselling is that there are certain qualities of character and personality that are detrimental to what is often considered to be 'good counselling'. Any personality that is, or can be, described as authoritarian, dogmatic, rigid and inflexible, self-assertive, lacking in warmth, humanity and in humility, arrogant, overbearing, inconsiderate of others, a poor listener, prejudiced and neurotic is the kind of person that should be excluded from personal counselling. But personal counselling is only one of the kinds of counselling that is currently operating. For example, although the term counselling is susceptible of a variety of meanings I would distinguish personal counselling from two other main kinds of school counselling. These are 1. vocational guidance or careers counselling and 2. psychometric or test counselling. In psychometric or test counselling a wide knowledge of tests of various kinds is necessary. This involves not only an extensive acquaintance with the main kinds of standardised test (ability, aptitude, attainment and personality) in current use in schools but also an ability to plan a programme of objective tests for different age groups and for different purposes and to interpret the results meaningfully and scientifically. This demands a specialised approach very different from the approach needed in personal counselling.

In vocational guidance or 'careers' counselling the stress is on the collection and collation of work information, of information about professions, of the various kinds of further education and on making such information easily available to the young person. Much of this kind of counselling is, and has been for some time, very much an accepted and well-developed area in English secondary schooling and is carried out by careers masters and mistresses. It is a most important area of specialisation for ensuring a satisfying and smooth

transition to post-school placements.

In personal counselling we are involved with probably the most difficult kind of counselling — difficult because it is difficult to teach in any direct or precise way as it involves the feeling or affective side of human nature. And I am concerned here to advocate that the main role of a school counsellor is that of 'personal' counselling.

This I would define as a way of 'offering an opportunity to the young person in our secondary school, a one-to-one relationship, in which is accepting and tolerant yet relatively free from moralising, directing, advising or judging and in the hope that enough understanding will be gained of themselves, of strengths and weaknesses, assets and liabilities so that they can stand on their own feet without support.' I envisage that in carrying out this role within the school the school counsellor will work full-time within the school setting, and will not undertake any teaching duties. Such a role involves a contribution to the emotional health of the school (as well as of individuals within the school) which is different from the contributions of any other of the staff members. Such a role involves specialised training following on from special selection of teachers and others to fill this role. Both staff and students will see the school counsellor as a person who is always available to talk over their problems in an atmosphere which is unhurried and non-authoritarian and to whom they can go back again and again for help to talk through or often to work through their problems. The ideal will be that the majority of young people coming to the school counsellor will be self-referred. There are similarities between such personal counselling and psychotherapy in aim, approach, method and technique although the differences are obvious. Not only is the setting different (e.g. personal counselling occurs in a non-medical setting while psychotherapy occurs in a medical setting) but there are differences of skill, of length and kind of training as well as the kind of person dealt with. In personal counselling we are dealing with relatively normal people who are not too badly scarred, psychologically speaking, by life's experiences. On the other hand the psychotherapist is dealing mainly with people who

are more deeply disturbed and who need a more intensive, prolonged and skilled approach.

It is quite unnecessary for every member of the school to see the school counsellor and in a largely self-referring system I would not expect more than one third of the school population to see the school counsellor, even though it is a very natural and normal thing for teenagers to have personal problems relating to their parents, their homes, their friendship groups and to their society. It is sometimes difficult for them to communicate with those whom they feel to be 'authority' figures and inevitably teachers and parents fall into this category. The need is there in every secondary school for someone to be available who is not seen to be connected too closely with 'authority'.

I envisage the major portion of the school day of a school counsellor being occupied with direct counselling relationships and ideally no young person should be forced into such a relationship against their wishes. It is obvious that this will not be possible for many as even in a largely self-referring system there will probably be as many as a third, or possibly more, who may be referred rather unwillingly from staff. Most of those who will be seeing the school counsellor will be voluntary attenders once it gets around that a great deal of help can be had from the school counsellor. The whole aim of personal counselling should be seen and felt to be voluntary as far as possible. There will in any case be some young people who would prefer to be seen by an agency outside the school or who will feel that their confidences cannot be respected within the school setting. And here one of the minor roles of the school counsellor may be to act as a screen for possible referral elsewhere. This involves knowing what to look for, being aware of one's own limitations and being able to refer to others outside the school in the right way and manner. It involves an awareness of the role played by a variety of social and medical agencies and how they might be able to help.

It is most important for the development of a professional role within the school setting for the school counsellor not to have his role determined for him by others but that he is aware

of his role, his function and his limitations and that these are accepted by others. The present confusion of roles is well illustrated by the Schools Council Publication 'Counselling in Schools', and this situation seems likely to continue for some time yet in a new profession that is at the beginning of its development in the English setting.

As everybody will realise it would be unreasonable to expect the school counsellor to be accepted in schools without difficulty or opposition although there are several things that can be done to ease his entry. It is essential before any counsellor is appointed that staff of the school must see the need for a school counsellor and be aware of the complementary nature of each other's roles. The staff will be aware that much of their own work with their pupils includes counselling elements, that some of their problems even if they are not too complex for them to deal with certainly need more time than they would be able to spare and they will understand that a school counsellor will not be any threat to their autonomy as class or subject teachers, or as tutors and housemasters or housemistresses. It will be seen that the school counsellors' work will supplement their own work.

When a school counsellor is appointed a staff conference is necessary at which is explained the aims and methods of the school counsellor, and while the staff's needs for information can be satisfied here it is important that a limiting of objectives is attempted so that hopes are not raised too high. If it can be shown early on that useful helping relationships can be established with certain young people and that these are seen as having a beneficial influence on others then a further stage towards a more general acceptance is reached. On the other hand it must be realised that certain problem children will remain difficult to modify and some will continue to remain unhelpable. The school counsellor will be seen as only one member amongst many who are involved in the whole hierarchy of care and concern both within and without the school.

To define the school counsellor's role as mainly that of personal counselling it follows that we need to be quite clear on the personal

qualities to look for when selecting candidates for training. As in all else in this field research and extensive experience is needed before too definite ideas can be put forward but the following key qualities should be looked for in this kind of counsellor. Apart from having the right ability and educational levels it is essential that they are the kind of person that most people (and especially young people) like to talk to. A high degree of personal security, self-awareness and self-acceptance is necessary, as too is an absolute concern with people as people. While being sensitive to others yet a capacity for objectivity or non-involvement or clinical detachment appears essential.

It follows from the view I have taken of the school counsellors role that a considerable amount of time would need to be devoted in counsellor training schemes to counselling technique much of which cannot be learned out of books.

Counselling is as much an attitude of mind rather than a method that can be learned and the kind of person we are determines the effectiveness of our counselling. Counselling seems to involve three stages i) knowing what to do ii) knowing how to do it and iii) what is probably the most difficult of all, being able to carry out effectively both these two. And in each of these stages systematic training is necessary. On an information level the areas of knowledge which need to be covered include a. the main facts of personality development and how we become what we are. b. sexual development c. the social services d. ethical and legal considerations in counselling. Equally important after training is a systematic attempt to provide adequate field supervision.

School Counselling can be seen as an aspect of preventive mental health. Whenever crises in personal development occur in school such as a child refusing school, or a young person being involved with the police, or a person of high natural ability who is severely under-functioning, one can often trace throughout the school or family setting that he or she was at risk for a considerable period of time before the crisis arose and some serious problems might be prevented by appropriate action arising out of the skilled observations of the teachers. The school counsellor would be present at staff discussions of

problem children or of young people who were showing educational, social and personal difficulties of various kinds. It will not of course be possible for all mental health problems to be prevented either because they will not be easily detectable or because there are unforeseen reactive changes to unforeseen environmental upsets. Within the school all staff are concerned with the personal progress of their pupils and if all are easy, free and informal contact each with the other then it is likely that the majority of mental health problems could be detected.

While school counsellors must be perpetually involved in searching for, refining and adapting procedures that offer young people the maximum opportunity to develop and grow as persons yet at the same time it is important that the science as well as the art of counselling is not neglected. In Professor Elliot Jaques' inaugural address given on his becoming Head of the School of Social Sciences, Brunel University ('The Science of Society', Human Relations, Vol. 18, No. 3 pp 125-127 1965) we have some relevant points. He observes, 'The problem of the social sciences and psychology is not that they cannot be scientific in the sense of using a disciplined scientific approach, but that they try to achieve academic respectability either by aping too rigidly the experimental sciences or by remaining theoretical and bookish. Neither being forced into a narrow scientific mould nor proliferating great theoretical system will take the social sciences far. They are in their early stages and are in need of detailed teasing out, and observation and description of our social institutions and behaviour — systematic observation — calls for a special attitude, an attitude of detached involvement, to be achieved with immense mental toil. By mental toil I mean that creative act in which our conscious beliefs, principles and concepts are held not as perfect and immutable, as hard-and-fast currency, but as flexible counters, always uncertain and incomplete, and always under scrutiny for modification in the light of the reality of experience'.

Whenever studies have been made to determine how effective counselling procedure may be, the results tend to be similar to those obtained when objective measures are made of the success or otherwise of psychotherapy. And there appears no

easily available or definite solution here at the moment. The findings of research must be interpreted with great caution as it is not always possible to control all the variables adequately and scientifically or to allow for differences arising from the different populations used or even to agree on the values or goals of counselling. The school counsellor must always be ready to submit his counselling to detailed objective analysis so that further improvements in technique can come about.

Summary.

1. The school counsellor's main role within the Secondary school is that of personal counselling. To be identified with the authority and expertness of the psychometrician — or tester, or with the information and advice giving of the careers and vocational guidance expert, is likely to lead to less effective personal counselling.
2. The school counsellor will work full-time within the school setting and will not be engaged in any teaching duties. This does not exclude, however, involvement in discussion groups at various levels although one of his main strengths here will be for the school counsellor not to be seen to be engaged in the kind of authority that goes with teaching.
3. Some attempt needs to be made to define the school counsellor's role rather more precisely than at present, so as to try to avoid the assumption of too many roles in none of which will he be able to function expertly enough.
4. It is important to try to match the content and methods of training courses fairly closely to the expected professional role.
5. The aim should be to have a self-referring counselling system open to all young people to use if they so wish.
6. Personal qualities are paramount in the selection of school counsellors.

Further Reading

Working paper No. 15, 'Counselling in Schools'
H.M.S.O., 1967

'Client-Centred Counselling in the Secondary School'
Boy and Pine, Houghton Mifflin, 1963

'Problems of Adolescent Girls', 2nd Edition
James Hemming, Heinemann Educ. Books Paperback,
1967.

What will the School Counsellor do?
Peter Daws, Educational Research Volume 9 No.
2 Feb. 1967, pp 83-92.

Considering Counselling

by K. PORTMAN, B.A., Headmaster Clacton
Secondary School for Boys.

To his good friends thus wide I'll ope my arms,
And, like the kind life-rend'ring pelican.
Repast them with my blood.

Hamlet 4. v.

I

I attended the Teachers' Working Party on Counselling in Secondary Schools arranged by the E.N.E.F. in an exploratory mood. We now have the Youth Employment Service, the Youth Service, the Child Guidance Service in addition to the Medical, Dental and Probationary Services. As a teacher and as a Headmaster I have seen more and more time given to these services, each in some way relying on the schools for background information and/or assistance of some sort.

Moreover the services function during the same hours as the schools. This means that if pupils are to be seen at all they are to be seen during the period when they are supposed to acquire the skills and the knowledge that have accumulated over the years and have made us a civilized community.

When universal education in this country began its purpose was to make the masses literate. The teaching was mainly in the reading, writing and arithmetic. The time has not increased over the years but the number of things we are supposed to teach in schools has increased beyond belief. A score or so of subjects are taught in secondary schools today. We are also asked to provide time for other things too: driving instruction and safety first instruction and sex instruction; outside lecturers are to be invited, visits to factories

arranged and so on. In spite of it all the teaching profession remains a sitting duck when anybody wishes to condemn the youth of today. Immorality and holiganism are frequently blamed onto the schools: Why don't we tell 'em? Why don't we teach 'em to **THINK**? And so on. Yet the youth of today is perhaps more knowledgeable, more receptive than ever it has been in the history of the country and the teachers are doing more work now than ever they have done in the past. They devote time and energy to activities outside the school curriculum: debating societies, film clubs, dramatic clubs and all forms of sport including such activities as throwing the javelin or discus, activities that were never taught in my school days.

In spite of the dedicated and devoted service that the majority of teachers give not only are they blamed for youth's faults but they have still very little status in the community and the general public begrudges them their salaries.

I attended the Working Party hoping that I could plead for the teacher on the classroom floor.

It requires many virtues and many qualities of character to do this job well. It is true that we have not enough good teachers and that we need more desperately, but we have some.

Yet it is the stratum of society from which teachers are drawn that also provides the doctors, the lawyers, the dentists, the youth officers, the psychologists, the social workers and probation officers and, presumably, the counsellors. It is my opinion that many of those entering these professions would be better employed on the classroom floor. But, alas, it is still true to say that if one wishes to get on in the teaching profession then one must get **out**. Many of our youth employment officers and educational psychologists have been drawn from the classroom floor. It is in these professions that they have seen that they can make some advance in status.

Returning to London on one occasion from an unsuccessful interview for the post of educational psychologist I had dinner with others who had also failed. I shall never forget the remark of one: 'Never, never,' he said 'shall I return to the classroom floor.'

In conversation with one of my Head Boys — now a successful barrister — I asked him why he was not prepared to be a teacher. He looked at me quizzically. 'Do you really want to know?' 'Of course,' I said. 'It always seems to me', he answered, 'that teachers are held in contempt by everybody and I think I do.'

I've always learned a lot from my boys. I have been counselling all my life.

Any teacher worthy of his salt notices the problem cases, and with simple words and discussions during spare moments alleviates the distress of many a child. One has to live with pupils for long periods to handle these delicate situations — an approach suitable to one is hopeless with another. One plays by ear. It is a teacher who has known his pupils for four and sometimes five and six years who is most likely able to do this.

Many of these aids to growing up that the teachers give are overlooked, only realised later in life, perhaps.

As soon as a new profession is started with the express purpose of attending to any group of the problems that are faced daily by the teacher then not only are the problems highlighted, organized and categorized but those dealing with them take on a status superior to that of a teacher. After all everyone has been to school, there is no **mystery** about teaching. In fact teaching is the only profession anyone can do better than the teacher!

These new professions consider themselves more important than the teacher. Yet they cannot do their work unless they rely upon the teachers. The Youth Employment Service cannot function without an elaborate document from the schools. The psychological clinic cannot function without a detailed report from the school. And it is noticeable that as these professions have increased in status and as their empires have grown so have grown the demands for more and more information from the schools. The only people who can provide this are the already overworked teachers.

The school seems to be taking up the position of a holding company on which other subsidiaries feed.

It is with thoughts such as these that I attended

the working party. I left somewhat mollified. If someone were to allow my school to have its own counsellor I would welcome one **so long as this person did not affect my staffing ratio.**

Such a counsellor could talk to pupils without having to run along to the next class. He could visit the homes. He could collate existing information and liaise between the varying services, perhaps act as a leader at discussion groups.

II

It now seems to me necessary that in the training of teachers there should be more stress paid to counselling in schools. New teachers entering the profession should be aware that the pupils often need personal guidance. It may be that they are not cut out for this job themselves and would pass on the problem to a more experienced teacher — even the headmaster.

Now that the training of teachers takes three years it would help if in the final year some ideas of the theory and practice of counselling were to be given. This training may not be relevant at the time — but its need would be discerned as the newly qualified teacher became more experienced. With more teachers time could be allowed for this kind of guidance, and, who knows, one may become full time **in one school.**

I have acted as a careers master and before ever the service was set up I spent hours exploring the area to find the openings that would suit the boys leaving school. Even now where any boy has any special ability I find that I place him in a suitable employment and then notify the Youth Employment Service of what I have done. This, in itself, indicates the teacher's ability to place a boy in an occupation suitable to his potentialities.

A teacher is in a good position to be a guide, comforter and friend.

III

During the course I attended I rarely heard any comment on subjects (it is, I know unpopular, retrogressive, reactionary etc., to mention subjects) but I would like to stress the importance of subjects. Definitions of education are frequently nebulous. We are told that education should

be aimed at the development of the 'whole person'; that we should 'teach the children to live'; that 'education is a preparation for life' and so on. We say we want to enable a boy 'to stand on his own feet' — one of the latest clichés. Presumably the school counsellor by sorting out personal problems will enable the pupil to stand on his own feet. But I know that many of the reasons for insecurity is lack of knowledge. A boy who is unable to read or write or do well in his ordinary school subjects feels inferior. We can fool a lot of people but we cannot fool our charges. They come to school to learn and they expect to learn even though they may not like it. A dull boy knows his limitations and will make complaints if he is not taught. If he cannot do what he feels he ought to be able to do he feels inadequate.

We forget that school subjects are vehicles. All the stuff we learn in schools we often forget but it always leaves a residue. A residue on which we can call at some future time. But in the very communication of subject matter we are able to stress those attitudes the counsellor apparently is expected to foster. Through the teaching of subjects there develops a trust between teacher and taught. There are opportunities for mutual help and advice and so on. In every possible way a subject, (history, mathematics, what you will), can be used to communicate and develop very important and usually immeasurable, qualities of personality. Attitudes and relationships develop between participants within the teaching context, or by proxy, as in identification with a character in a play. I must insist on this idea that a subject can form a vehicle for subtle communication of attitudes, for the catharsis of emotion, and for the understanding of motives. It is not only history or geography or English that we are teaching, we are teaching other things besides.

I am reminded very much of the idea of the pursuit of happiness, for example. If we attempt to be happy we are not happy. Happiness is a bye product of doing something else and I suggest that most of these human qualities and human relationships that we admire so much are often developed in the pursuance of something else. In English Literature, perhaps more than in anything else, there are opportunities galore to bring out the aspects of personal relationships that often trouble our charges. A Shakespearean

play is always set for A-level English. How can one, for instance, avoid the discussion of sex or the colour question when dealing with the unexpurgated edition of 'Othello'.

Even now, now, very now, an old black ram
Is tupping your white ewe.

Act I. i.

And what of Aesop's Fables?

Nor need one be a Christian to use the Bible as a source book for the study of human relationships:

'For just as you have many members in one physical body and those members differ in their functions, so we, though many in number, comprise one Body in Christ and are all members of one another. Through the grace of God we have different gifts. If our gift is preaching, let us preach to the limit of our vision. If it is serving others let us concentrate on our service; if it is teaching let us give all we have to our teaching; and if our gift be the stimulating of the faith of others let us set ourselves to it. Let the man who is called to give, give freely; let the man who wields authority think of his responsibility; and let the sick visitor do his job cheerfully.'

Romans 12.

Problems in human relationships, multiplicity of choice, examples of decision making not only come up in discussion groups but here in literature, sacred and profane, they are introduced naturally — and I am sure most effectively.

IV

To summarize:

1. First of all let us have more teachers.
2. Let all intending teachers have some training in the theory and practice of counselling.
3. Never let us forget that subjects can form vehicles of immeasurable value for the training in the understanding of human relationships, for the development of moral awareness and sensitivity to all human issues.

Reactions to a Working Party on Counselling

by D. M. Anthony. D.A.S.E. (Counselling)
Course, Keele University, Staffs. 9th May, 1968.

I have been asked to write on my reactions to the Working Party on School Counselling from the viewpoint of one who is under training to be a counsellor. I hope that you will understand my diffidence in attempting this; counsellors are finding that their roles differ according to their schools' particular needs. However, I can definitely affirm my delight at the sympathetic and encouraging response by the working party to the speakers propounding counselling aims and purposes, and the stimulation I found in the many thoughtful and positive contributions within the group discussions.

Perhaps I may take up a point which was raised once or twice during the two day course. This concerned the possibility that vocational counselling could endanger personal counselling, that vocational counselling was suspect anyway, and best not attempted by the school counsellor who should devote himself to personal counselling alone. I wonder how many would share this view?

The setting up of a counselling situation within a school requires an awareness of the school's own special needs, and our training encourages us to base our work on the understanding that there is already in existence a guidance provision in the school. How can it best be re-inforced and supplemented and how can the counsellor's resources best be used to work alongside and with the Headmaster, house, year and form tutors, the Youth Employment Service and the careers and welfare staff with special responsibilities for the developmental needs of our young people in schools?

I can see that there will be circumstances when a counsellor is introduced into a school where personal counselling demands much of his skills, time and energies. I have recently spent some time in such a school on counselling practice. Here, particularly, the counsellor sees his role as being largely supportive to the children of

deprived and problem families of that school. There are an unusually large number of such families and he is fulfilling an urgent need. Often though the counsellor finds that the presenting problem with which he begins is not the real problem and it would be wrong surely to limit the role of the counsellor in all schools to personal counselling, especially perhaps with the helping of the difficult, the delinquent, the truant. There would be dangers, it would seem to me, in only personal counselling. This could encourage the counsellor's time to be used disproportionately with young people with extreme behavioural problems. This could lead to the counsellor being regarded as someone whom one sees when something is going wrong. The counsellor then may be identified with a negative function.

This would contradict the belief which our training has led us to accept, that counselling is concerned with the helping of the young person to cope with the normal problems of adolescence and with his normal developmental needs. A main assumption is that in the safety of the counselling relationships the young person can examine an immediate presenting difficulty, in some cases think through more underlying personal problems, ask himself what are his goals and what does he want from life, what is his level of aspiration, how firm is his grasp of reality? Realistic personal goals are inextricably tied to realistic and relevant educational and vocational choices. The counsellor, in close association with form and subject teacher, careers staff and Youth Employment Officer, can surely help considerably here.

During the discussion which followed Mr. Taylor's address, the point was raised that the idea of every pupil seeing the counsellor was not only unnecessary but faintly risible, but is it? Nearly every youngster is thrown into his or her own particular turmoil at puberty. At a time of new self-discovery some adjust outwardly much better than others. But I think we would deceive ourselves if we were to assume that the broad range of our normal young people have no developmental difficulties. Professor Francis P. Robinson, Keele's visiting professor from Ohio State University for the current session, pointed

the future of counselling in the high schools and colleges in the USA to that of normal individual growth counselling for all. Are our young people so different, I wonder?

Finally, information was requested about the National Association of Educational Counsellors. The Honorary Secretary of the Association is Mr. R. G. Lane, 34, Rothesay Avenue, Newcastle, Staffs. (Newcastle 63406) who will be pleased to answer queries.

Counselling in Secondary Schools *ENEF Working Party* **Chairman's Notes**

And my general impression, shared I believe by all, of two days well spent: with high-calibre participation, two pregnant and penetrating addresses, lively and informed discussion in plenary and group meetings and in the corridors during the intervals, dynamic contributions by a number of individuals, and the feeling of a working party moving at adequate depth a considerable way towards clarification of the role of counsellor and some steps towards the definition of his specific function in the school situation, and in an English educational context.

The conference was timely and aptly 'phased in' in relation to the Fellowship's current programme and emphases. The New Era's initiative in sounding the views of education authorities had produced the Horizontal Handbook on Counselling (the Nov. 1967 issue of the New Era) and the WEF had prompted a study of the subject through its national Sections. The ENEF's recent sequence of conference themes. *New Perspectives in Education*, *Towards Tomorrow's Schools*, and its concentration this year on mental health in schools as a prelude to the Seventh World Congress on Mental Health to be held in London in August, gave counselling as a topic an integral place in its programme.

Moreover, however we define counselling, and however we formulate the principles of the New Education — and we have tried often enough — the two bases they both must share are

respect for individual human personality and the conception of education as a process of nurturing its growth: hence a concern for the whole person in his social relationships and in his emotional development, and a belief that all children are educable.

Thus, on a general interpretation, the idea of counselling is inherent in the Fellowship's philosophy. In planning the discussions, the ENEF Council were disposed to give sympathetic consideration to the more specific proposals for the institution of the School Counsellor, long established in the USA, practised in other countries, and now gaining currency in the UK.

Though there have always been elements of counselling in the traditional body of pastoral practice in good English schools, and though some schools have moved a long way in the direction of instituting provision for individual care and guidance, the changed conditions of to day prompt an enquiry as to whether what the schools in practice provide either does or can adequately meet the needs of those of their pupils, whose personal and emotional problems are so severe as to call for special help.

Attention was called in the Chairman's foreword to the conference (See April's New Era) to the new pressures, external and internal, upon the schools and teachers. These would still tax the schools even if they had a more generous staffing ratio, more good teachers, and a less damaging 'turnover' than is unfortunately the case. The present conditions aggravated by the staffing problem dispose the schools to welcome special help.

At the same time more teachers are becoming actively aware of the educational implications of psychological and sociological research that have been mediated to large numbers through recent Advisory Council Reports and many other channels.

In these circumstances the ground is prepared for the acceptance of the idea of counselling for school pupils.

But the New Era's preliminary sounding of the LEAs throughout the country shows that many

are not at this stage seriously considering any such proposal. 'So far the segregation of this kind of help has not been thought advisable' is typical of some replies.

A significant number, however, are experimenting with counselling. But it is clear, from descriptions of their work and training by 'counsellors' engaged in the schools, that their function as practised carries a variety of connotations, and in some cases a range of commitments that may well set up resistances among teachers, and not least among those most devoted to the individual care of their pupils.

I for one would not have welcomed the obtrusion of an omnicompetent 'counsellor' into a well-established and experienced careers team and a school-based vocational guidance service in close collaboration with the Y.E.S. Nor into relationships with individual parents or the parental body, organically based on a tutorial system. And where, as in the comprehensive school, educational guidance has replaced selection. I should not look to a counsellor to relieve of this responsibility the large number of teachers concerned. Community relations, too, are a broadly shared responsibility. And where as at Wandsworth, which may have been exceptional but surely not unique, there was a team of half-a-dozen qualified remedial specialists, all better versed in child development than a 'counsellor' might be expected to be, his intrusion into the department might not be helpful. Nor in the general field of pastoral care could the counsellor supplant the tutor in his continuous daily contacts with his small 'family' group.

This is not to deny place to certain new modes of care, but patently there is need to graft them with some delicacy into a traditional body of 'pastoral' practice that good schools have always adopted and continuously adapted. The crux of the problem is in what capacity and within what scope the advent of the counsellor is likely to find acceptance, and indeed be welcomed, by the staff of a school.

Hence the Working Party considered a sequence of themes:

(1) Towards a definition of counselling.

(2) The place of the counsellor in the school's provision for care and guidance.

(3) The position of the counsellor in the spectrum of mental health services — from classroom teacher to educational psychologist and psychiatric clinic, with the study of practical examples.

The constitution and calibre of the working party made for a high and informed level of discussion, and the limitation of its numbers to 40, making three discussion groups, ensured flexibility and full individual participation. Members brought their experience and expertise from many fields: There were a dozen ENEF members, mostly members of Council. In addition, schools were represented by Heads, deputy heads, heads of remedial, RE,, and drama departments: there were members from colleges and Institutes of education: educational and clinical psychologists: members of the LEA Inspectorate and Advisory Service: trained and practising school counsellors: a psychiatric social worker: marriage guidance counsellors, group counsellors, and social workers.

The Chairman's opening talk sketched the broad field of school care and guidance as it had developed in his experience during the last 40 years. Members were asked critically to identify, against a background of the total spectrum, the areas they judged appropriate for the function of counselling, hence the potential role of the counsellor, and thence the most suitable course and methods for training counsellors. This would enable them to clarify their own conceptions and make for more precise and pertinent discussion.

He suggested that it might be helpful if the total field were looked at from six aspects:

- (1) the personal care of the individual.
- (2) educational guidance.
- (3) vocational orientation and guidance, and choice of career.
- (4) home and school relations, and parental participation.
- (5) social, medical, and welfare services related

to the school.

- (6) the school's community relations.

It might also be useful to weigh current factors which are thought to render the school's generally accepted practice and methods of care less effective, and make the appointment of specially designated and trained counsellors desirable. And alongside this to consider to what extent the situation could be met by providing more short courses in specific fields of care and guidance for a much higher proportion of the teaching staff.

The implications of the Chairman's introductions were:

- (1) the need for a wide diffusion of the school's responsibility for care in community, and of continuous guidance for all.
- (2) the embodiment of educational guidance, vocational orientation, and education in personal and social relations as integral elements in the curricular plan.
- (3) genuine partnership and two-way communication between home and school, i.e. ideally between all teachers and all parents; and the conception of the school as a social nexus, relating homes and schools in co-operative association.
- (4) along with the development of the school itself as a social community the complementary aim of establishing educative relationships between the school and the community it serves, so as to provide the matrix within which the child at school matures into the responsible adult citizen.

Patently the counsellor cannot carry this load. Let us not then look to him as a panacea for all the ills and inadequacies that may show themselves over so wide a field.

This, I judge, was a feeling generally shared. I also think it was salutary that some started from an even more critical standpoint: before we impart a new 'fashion' from abroad, let us see whether and how the schools will wear it: before we jump on the band-wagon let's make sure

it suits English roads and at least know where it is going.

Though it would be premature to formulate 'conclusions' from the deliberations, there emerged certain trends of opinion. Before attempting to assess them, I offer a quite summary sketch of the leading points from the main contributors and of the course of the discussions.

The first address was given by Mr H. J. F. Taylor, Senior Educational Psychologist of the London Borough of Hillingdon. He found considerable role confusion in the new profession of counselling. However, conditions were ripe for the counsellor's advent. The schools' assumptions about the curriculum were at last changing: they no longer felt obliged to accept the traditional curricular rigidities while doing their best to make schools places for living. They were now reconstructing the curriculum as a means to personal growth and creative living in a sustaining culture.

The main role of the counsellor was in the field of mental health, in personal counselling as distinct from vocational guidance and educational psychometry. We should implement in the school setting the conception of counselling as developed in psychological therapy.

In other words, counselling and psycho-therapy had much in common. Hence a main reason why the counsellor should have a place outside the structure of school authority. This reduced the ethical dilemma, for the counsellor must gain the complete trust of his 'client' and accept confidences without censoriousness though they contravened the school's moral code.

He advocated a self-referral system: the counsellor should be easily accessible to all, but pupils would go to him only when they chose: at least there should be no forced relationship.

The essence of counselling was an attitude: hence personal qualities counted for more than techniques, though these should be acquired. The teaching staff should be brought to see the need for a counsellor's services and to recognise the kind of problem that called for his help.

Miss Irene Caspari's penetrating and well-founded analysis of the problems of counselling left no one in a mind to take a facile view of the case for counselling in schools.

For a start the word 'counselling' had so general a use that it might be well to dispense with the term. Though definitions had been elaborated to give the term precision — Mr. Taylor's definition for example — a simple one might serve: help given to a person when worried. But there are different kinds of worry, different levels of anxiety, some more specific some less, some more conscious some less.

And if counselling means listening and understanding the problem and then giving appropriate help, we have to understand what 'understanding' means at the different levels and take into account various levels of appropriate action. As well as demanding the right personal qualities in the counsellor, understanding in this sense requires much skill in the techniques of elucidation and much experience, and can be achieved only as a result of much time, effort, and training.

When it is also realised that such work in schools is much more difficult than in a clinic, then we begin to appreciate the dilemmas in which the vogue of the counsellor places us.

With much of what Mr Taylor said Miss Caspari was in full agreement. But from very considerable experience of psychological work in the schools as well as in the clinic, she found difficulty in accepting the view that those giving counselling help should not be teachers. All teachers need to have counselling skills and these may well be of different kinds. Both teaching and non-teaching counsellors have advantages.

Here was the fundamental dilemma. **Was the vogue of the counsellor an evasion of the fundamental problem of adapting education to the needs of the adolescent?**

If we concentrate overmuch on solving our problems through the counsellor, we may lose sight of that part of counselling that is built into teaching. Anna Freud's work uses the teaching situation to advantage. The work of creative

groups as pioneered by the WEF is altogether relevant to school conditions. The study of literature in schools has been a rich source of education of the emotions, of personal and social development, and of ethical as well as aesthetic enrichment.

It would certainly be an advantage if we could provide for suitably selected members of the teaching staff more short courses on the approach to counselling. This would help to absorb and solve many of the problems that arise from and within the school situation, and equip teachers better to cope with the probably larger number of cases for counselling that arise through factors which the school does not immediately control. Further, they would be better able to identify cases which called for the help of the educational psychologist or psycho-therapist.

The opening session on the second day was designedly reserved for a 'symposium' of shorter talks by group members whose special experience or point of view would extend the field of discussion in important directions. In the event, though one was aware of others who might have made valuable contributions, three speakers carried us on to the mid-day break.

Mrs E. M. Eisenklam gave a highly relevant and exciting account of her work during the last three years as Young Persons Adviser in the ILEA Care Service attached to Parliament Hill School. She traced its evolution from the Angel Project (1958), the adoption of which by the LCC in 1961 led to the establishment of ten similar Care Service posts in due course under the ILEA.

Pending the special article which this contribution deserves, I briefly record the features that strike me as most significant: the counsellor's access and acceptability to the school without the limitations of working as one of the staff with responsibility for a 'department' or a defined part of the curricular structure identified with the organised authority of the Head and Staff: continuity of counselling before and after leaving school: the use of group discussion to help the inarticulate and improve attitudes: the gradual creation of an elective framework, other than the school framework, in

which deeper relations could grow, and the self-image be enriched by a sense of social responsibility and of participation in a supporting culture.

Miss B. Jones, from a long and varied experience, as teacher in primary and secondary schools, as adviser to an education authority, and now as headmistress of a large secondary school, pictured her school, from the point of view of care and guidance, as a total community concern, embracing not only pupils and teachers, but also the parents, the Governors, the City Council, the social services, and a total nexus of community relations, made more tangible by the school's siting among all the main public buildings of a peripheral unit of a great city conurbation. Her distinctive contribution was the conception of the community as educative experience. John Wallbridge, as head of a school for the maladjusted, started his arresting contribution with a sardonic definition of the problematic term 'maladjustment' as that which has been 'vomited from where it is to somewhere else'. With but few exceptions the child is better contained in his own area.

Efficacious counselling demands confidence. The problem-child must feel that confidence is guaranteed, for example against communication to his parents or the police. This is the counsellor's dilemma and points to the necessity for the counsellor to be outside the school's official network.

The counsellor, too, might find himself involved with any one of a very large number of people or services in the imbroglio in which a problem case was enmeshed. He listed over a score, and paused for breath while we thought of others.

And of all the persons whose job brings them into contact with him, the child develops his own stereotype of their role — and plays his own role accordingly. The complications may well take even a well-versed counsellor out of his depth.

John Wallbridge was worried about Mr Taylor's near-identification of the counsellor as psycho-therapist, though he endorsed his main recommendations.

His final emphasis lay on the case for separate roles as between the teacher whose major skill is revealed in dealing with large groups and pre-supposes some measure of authority, and the counsellor whose major skill is in the one-to-one relationship and pre-supposes a non-authoritarian relationship.

As for the discussions:

Fortunately with the limitation of numbers to 40, plenary discussions made sense — and yielded profit: for the amount of time left on either day for small group discussion was limited. However, an hour and a half on the first day and the whole afternoon of the second day until 4.30 p.m. were so spent. Then to conclude we had a plenary hour.

It was enjoined upon the leaders that they should free themselves from any pre-occupation during the discussions with the preparation of a group report, but as a preliminary to the closing plenary session the groups should set aside half an hour to review the main trends of their discussion and identify what had emerged as central problems, deciding the points they would bring up to the plenary and which members should speak to them.

As the Chairman had made clear at the outset, a great part of the value of the working party would be in the individual reports and articles which it would provide for the New Era and, it was hoped, other educational journals.

So to conclude this article:

My own thinking has been moving towards the idea of special counselling for those who need it for the past ten years. During the previous thirty years I would have held that the staff with very occasional resort to the psychological service could cope. During that time I had a remarkable stability of tenure in a staff highly selected not only for their teaching qualifications but also for what they could contribute to the school as a caring community (as tutors) and as life to be lived. My colleagues had worked out in conference the system they practised.

When the 'quota' cut down the generosity of

LCC staffing, when shortage of teachers made it difficult to select the right staff or sometimes to get staff at all, when special allowances and the demands from other branches of education speeded up 'turnover' of staff to really serious proportions, when daily pastoral care could not be looked for from part-time teachers, when all these internal factors combined with the growing weight of the many external factors that, as earlier mentioned, have borne upon the schools, brought about increasing over-pressure upon the staff, then the school's potentiality as a caring community was to that extent reduced.

Teachers are aware that they need help in many areas of their commitment. We may be convinced that they need the help of the school counsellor, but until we persuade the teachers generally to share our conviction, it behoves the authorities to tread delicately and the counsellor to choose his ground.

Though it would be premature to attempt to formulate conclusions, the Working Party appeared to move steadily towards the following positions: that the main role of the counsellor in the school setting should be in the field of mental health, in personal counselling in a non-authoritarian atmosphere and in an unforced relationship ('self-referral') with the individual pupil. He should supplement the care and guidance work of the staff where it has counselling elements, and where the staff see, or or can be brought to see, the need. The role can be played only with difficulty, if at all, by one engaged upon ordinary teaching duties — this being the most critically debated point.

The counsellor's own personality and attitudes are more important than his training, though training in the techniques of counselling would be desirable. Courses of training should concentrate on personal counselling and case work with supervised follow-up, against a background of general awareness of the whole field of care and guidance, the work of the social services, and the school's home and community relationships, areas for which people other than the counsellor have the responsibility.

Raymond King

Group Study for Teachers

Elizabeth Richardson

Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd; 1967.

Cloth Edition 15s; Limp Edition 7s 6d.

This is a valuable edition to that interesting new series of publications known as the Students Library of Education, under the general editorship of Prof. J. W. Tibble. Miss Richardson's book gives an account of pioneer experiment and research in an important area of social psychology; the interpersonal relations between teacher and taught, especially as manifested in the behaviour and experience of small groups. In the words of the preface, 'Teachers and those responsible for teacher education are coming to realise that an understanding of the dynamics of personality may not be enough to carry them through the vicissitudes of the group or classroom situation, since the group itself has an identity that is puzzling and elusive and that cannot be understood simply in terms of the personal identities of its individual members, important as these are.'

The theoretical foundation of Miss Richardson's work is that devised by Dr W. R. Bion ('Experiences in Groups'; Tavistock Publications, 1961), of whom she says, 'The techniques he used as a small group consultant seem to me to have thrown more light on the problems of teachers and pupils in school classrooms than any other that I am aware of.' Bion's work — and its further extension and development by the Staff of the Tavistock Clinic and the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations, especially in the residential conferences organised jointly with the University of Leicester since 1957 and with Christian Teamwork since 1964 — is the basis line from which Miss Richardson has moved in her interpretation of her own professional role as a Lecturer in Education; particularly in those aspects of her work where she meets students in seminars, tutorials and voluntary study-groups. She holds that 'the small group can become something more than the forum in which opinions and ideas about educational practice are exchanged and scrutinised; it can become the crucible in which a sample of educational experience can be studied while it is actually taking place', and she crystallises out the essence of Bion's theory in these words, 'the group, like the person, is always functioning at two levels: at the level of its primitive emotions, or basic assumptions, and at the level of work, or learning by experience. The work group is continually struggling to preserve a structure that will make growth and learning possible, whereas the basic assumption group is continually trying to escape from the obligation of learning by experience'.

As a consequence of this kind of thinking and observation, she then poses, and answers, this pertinent question: 'Is it enough for the teacher to study Bion's theory and to work out for himself at an intellectual level what sort of problems he is likely to encounter as the leader of the children's work group in the classroom?' . . . something can undoubtedly be learnt from reading . . . but an intellectual recognition of the existence of the problem, without the emotional experience of the problem, is only a limited recognition. The teacher who goes beyond this and accepts membership of a study group commits himself to something more than a search for intellectual understanding. He lays himself open to an emotional experience which may, as time goes on, enrich and smalise the intellectual understanding.'

In her own work with students, therefore, Miss Richardson deliberately oriented the situation so that, in the tutorial group for example, the following results might accrue: 'I wanted the students to test their own assumptions about the nature of my authority, to recognise their own right to choose what they wanted to learn, and to discover, through their struggle to make decisions about what form this learning should take, that the task I had given them was not beyond the powers of such a group.' She indicates that at least some of these

aims were achieved by the end of the final term: 'Thus, the external task (planning and putting into effect a series of discussions on educational topics) was found to include an internal task — coping with the conflicts aroused by the peculiarity of their relationship with me: and the problem of relating these two tasks was seen, eventually, to have parallels in every school classroom situation.'

The material for her monograph is taken from her own work with students in training for teaching at the Education Department of the University of Bristol. It covers a six-year period, and 22 different groups (12 voluntary study groups, 6 tutorial groups, and 4 seminars), comprising 240 students in all. The book is, inevitably and courageously, personal in its approach. There is nothing quantitative or statistical about it. No notes were ever taken during tutorial or study group meetings, though records were made as soon as possible after these had taken place. Tape recordings were done for a period of time, but later abandoned as too unwieldy and unselective to be useful. The writer expressly declares: 'All my evidence is, in a very real sense, subjective', and in another passage, 'throughout my problem has been to be as objective as possible about subjective experiences, both at the time they were occurring and in reflection after the events.' There may well be those who will criticise — and even discard — her findings, for these reasons. To my way of thinking, this would be a pity, for what she has to tell us, with honest integrity of purpose, and in succinct, disciplined and readable style, is very worthwhile, and could have a number of fruitful applications to the educational scene.

The five central chapters are devoted to a consideration of different aspects of the group process. Each chapter has its own focus, which at first sight may appear deceptively simple, but which in fact is used with subtlety and insight. Indeed, the whole book is distinguished by its emotional and intellectual clarity. The main themes are: (1) The professional framework, and the accompanying problems of evaluation and assessment; (2) the dual role of teaching and research, and consequent effects on relationships; (3) the physical setting; the ritualistic and symbolic use of room and furniture; (4) the time dimension; problems of lateness, absence, withdrawal; (5) Group endings: problems of conflict, mourning, and the search for meaning in the experience. Each of these themes is explored with sympathy, detachment, and an overall awareness of the significance of every aspect of behaviour — verbal and non-verbal, conscious and unconscious. The interplay of personality; the meaningfulness of sometimes apparently inexplicable incidents; the difficulty, the pain, the bewilderment, the anger felt at different times by both students and tutor: all these are clearly delineated and vividly illustrated.

Miss Richardson wisely attempts to draw no final and categorical conclusions. She leaves this reader, at any rate, with a sense of respect for the committed determination with which the work was carried through, and with a heightened awareness of its educational possibilities.

In conclusion, I should like to offer just one piece of constructive criticism, regarding the book's title. To my mind, this is frankly dull. Moreover, and more importantly, to those who, like myself, have had personal participant experience of the kind of work described therein, it may also appear misleading. Is it possible to consider a revised title which would convey, more surely than does the present one, something of the dynamic living process which is at the heart of the enterprise?

Muriel M. Kay.

Projects in History for the Secondary School

Sheila Ferguson
Batsford (1967) 18s

The author, who is Head of the History Department at Norwood Girls' School, is to be congratulated. She has produced a splendidly vigorous and useful book, which should be on the shelves of every school and College of Education library in the country.

In Part I Mrs Ferguson distils the wisdom of her classroom experience of which the following extracts give a taste:

(1) 'We study history in order to see more clearly into the situation in which we are called upon to act.'

The author adopts this dictum of Collingwood as the rationale of her method of teaching. (p. 9-10)

(2) 'The kind of project work considered in this book involves individual children or groups of children undertaking research assignments into historical topics and producing a 'book' or modest thesis on the subjects they have chosen to investigate.' (p. 11)

(3) 'Perhaps the most important feature of project work in the history course is the element of personal choice.' (p. 13)

Part II is devoted to skeleton plans for twenty specimen projects, ranging from Education and schools to Dictatorship and World Organisations: of the last Mrs Ferguson writes, 'A suitable topic for the child who likes his history as up-to-date as possible . . .' (p. 53) What a startling and rewarding notion — that children should be allowed to indulge their tastes in feeding off the past! Each suggested project has attached to it some pithy comment from the author together with a useful list of source material: further proposals for reading, reference and visits will be found at the end of the book.

James L. Henderson.

World Education, Revolutionary Concept

Morris R. Mitchell
Pageant Press Inc., New York, 1967

In a nuclear age understanding and peace between the nations of the world is not only desirable but essential in order to preserve the human race itself. In such a situation it is hardly surprising that many people turn to education in the hope that it will promote international understanding.

The author of this book is a member of the Society of Friends and in making his case for what he terms 'world education' what he has to say is deeply imbued with his religious convictions. Whatever the personal commitment of the readers may be few would however, disagree with Mr Mitchell's statements about men's basic needs concerning food, clothing, economic security nor with his concern for education as 'a tool of human survival'. The author points to college programmes, exchange visits and increased travel abroad as evidence that many people are concerned about 'world education'.

Disagreement is more likely to be provoked by the analysis of the process of education in which the author indicates his commitment to pragmatism, the problem approach and the reconstructionist ideas of Theodore Brameld.

The book has an old fashioned air about it although this is not to deny the possible value of the approach and the assumptions upon which it rests. One wonders if the writer is aware of how American his views of society, knowledge and the individual are. Clearly the problem approach has a great deal to offer but fundamental changes would be required in many societies to make it acceptable. Study programmes which break with the traditional subject matter divisions enabling students to solve 'major problems in our crisis culture' make sense but how are they to be made acceptable?

Because of his religious convictions Mr Mitchell may be more optimistic about the acceptability of his ideas than many of his readers will find it possible to be though they are in sympathy with the spirit of the book and consider his proposals pertinent to the difficult state of the world at the present time.

Ann Dryland

The Swedish Comprehensive School

Sixten Marklund & Par Soderberg
English Translation by Albert Read.
Longmans, pp. 119, Price 15s.

The Scottish Report on Secondary Education (1947) said of the Comprehensive School: 'This is the natural way for a democracy to order the post-primary schooling of a given area; that it escapes many of the disadvantages attaching to other forms of organization . . . and that better than any other plan, it promotes the success of the school as a community'.

The main function of the comprehensive school is to plan for the whole of education at the secondary stage. The comprehensive idea is a vision of secondary education as a unity. Within this unity there will be great variety of approach. Today comprehensive schools are spreading all over Britain. The experience gained in Sweden should be of immense help to those concerned with educational problems in Great Britain. Sixten Marklund and Par Soderberg's objective description of Swedish experience since 1950 is full of information from which the English readers can benefit. This informative and factual small book gives a brief account of the reasons why one of the most advanced countries in the world has left its traditional system of education — why the comprehensive school exists today and why it is organised as it is. Besides the important foreword written by Robin Pedley, there are thirteen interesting chapters in this book whose titles are: Education and Society; Compulsory Education Investigated; Experimental Work on the Comprehensive School; Transition to the Comprehensive School; Problems of Differentiation; Scientific Investigations; General Organisation of the Comprehensive School; Daily Work at School; Teaching and Learning Aids; Special Instruction and Welfare; Marks and Standards of Achievement; Progress Through School and Some Developmental Trends.

The various topics are well set out, pointing to certain issues that are greatly in need of still more research. The English translation is excellent and there is no doubt that 'What is certain is that Sweden's planned development of a comprehensive system has valuable lessons for an England committed in principle but still woefully hazy about the practical implications'.

Kartick C. Mukkijer.

The Scottish Educational System

S. Leslie Hunter

Pergamon Press, 1968

pp. 269, Price 35s. nett.

This is a good book. Historical, selective, dealing with a topic by no means new, it yet gives insights into Scottish education of a very valuable kind. In all there are twelve chapters in this book which are entitled: Historical Development; The Administration of Scottish Education; The Educational System; Structure and Traditions; Primary Education; Secondary Education; Special Education; Approved School Education; Welfare and Guidance Services; Independent School Education; Further Education; The Universities and Teachers.

The author gives a critical insight into crucial problems of education and offers important and vital suggestions. This volume throws open many discussions of contemporary relevance to students of comparative education and especially to those who require additional information to relevant sources.

The first three chapters are very important; they deal with the historical development of the system, its administration and finance, its traditions and structure. The following interesting chapters, as mentioned before, cover wide sections of the Scottish education system. The concluding four pages summarize the vital issues discussed and suggest future trends in Scottish education.

This book will be welcomed by students in Colleges of Education and University Departments of Education. It will also be of immense value to the general reader interested in authentic information on Scottish Education. The author rightly pointed out that it provides an overall view of the Scottish educational system as it exists today, and brings together in one volume material which is scattered throughout various acts, regulations, reports and other official publications. References at the end of each chapter are planned to direct students requiring additional information. We are all indebted to Pergamon Press for their excellent printing and publication of this book.

Kartick C. Mukkijer.

Children with special needs in the Infants' School

Lesley Webb

Colin Smythe, Ltd., 1967

216 pp. 30s.

This is a first rate book of its kind and in particular one to be recommended to teachers in training. Essentially it is an account of six years during which the author was head of an infant school and collected impressionistic material about the children. There is no pretence to analyse the material statistically, but this appears to have made the book readable, and to have allowed the author's humanity to shine through. Most chapters consider a theme, such as 'immature children' or 'children with cultural handicaps', are illustrated by half a dozen case histories, and are systematically summarised.

In the years covered by the study 500 children left the infants' school at the age of seven almost all for the normal junior school. Of this number 80 (16%) presented their teachers with unusual problems both of behaviour and learning; unusual, that is, when compared with those whose difficulties and misdemeanors were of short duration and resolved by ordinary attention to their learning and social

needs. The proportion in some years was higher than in others, and the total at the end of five years' record-keeping was a matter of considerable concern. Discussion with psychiatrists and psychologists however suggests that the average figure of 16%, or four out of 25 in any class, was a realistic one in the light of a number of delinquent, psychiatric and learning-failure cases among older age groups all over the country.

The great merit of the book is that its argument is firmly based on the case histories. Nevertheless Miss Webb freely admits her debt to Susan Isaacs, Buhler, Gesell, Piaget, D. E. M. Gardner and E. R. Boyce. Indeed her reports illuminate, and provide an introduction to, what they have said. The study itself is concerned with the emotional and social needs of young children which tend to be overlooked in the sometimes arid learning theories presented for students to master.

Miss Webb shows many examples of staff team work and the validity of non-punitive attitudes. The teacher of Brian (p. 101) surprised herself by her attachment to this 'hitherto unattractive and unreachable boy who had been regarded as an incorrigible thief'. She took to him giving him sixpence on Fridays for the extra work he did for her, thus ensuring that he had something to jingle as the other children had; the schoolkeeper gave him a biscuit occasionally, the cook an extra bottle of milk, the head teacher toffees from her tin. Brian in fact was given symbolic affection and trust by a whole group of adults. Even had he reverted to pilfering it was agreed that this policy should be continued — but in fact his stealing ceased.

The confusion and ambivalent attitude of adults to stealing in an acquisitive society is discussed. 'In a society which puts so high a premium on protection of property that the stealing of money is much more severely punished than physical violence against a child (a sentence of thirty years for robbing a bullion train, three months for breaking the arms of a two year old child, for example) and in which the perks of most jobs involve a greater or lesser degree of dishonesty, the young child is likely to be baffled by the rules. Father brings home two cans of buckshee paint from work, but the son gets thrashed for taking sixpence from his mother's purse'. In another strata, one might add, the pro-chancellor of a university is his capacity as chairman of an engineering firm is involved in the fraudulent making of nearly £4 million, yet it would be shameful if a student at that university were to be found cheating in an examination!

Similarly Miss Webb reveals the double attitude of the public towards aggression which is regarded as reprehensible in children, but a sign of courage and virility in an adult who is wearing a soldier's uniform. She interestingly discusses the different needs of children whose aggressive behaviour was solitary and those of the gang leaders or inciters. Solitary aggressors she states were younger, included girls, and were thought to be more deeply disturbed than those who belonged to gangs. The solitary children tended to destroy property whereas the gangs acted against persons. Miss Webb however does not refer to the research of Hilda Lewis (in **Deprived Children**) who shows convincingly too that 'unsocialised aggression' is a sign of more serious emotional damage the cure of which may come about, and indeed be encouraged understanding adults, through a phase of 'socialised' or gang, activities directed against persons.

Miss Webb echoes Jersild's indictment that 'schools dispense failure on a colossal scale', and roundly turns on the practice of grading. Only one child in

the class can possibly come top: it is anti educational and nonsensical, she insists, for the remainder of an infant class to be given the impression that they are inadequate human beings. Likewise she follows R. Mc. V. Hunt in the view that what once may have been attributed to poor heredity, in part at least, is amenable to good teaching in the early years. Opportunity to develop certain language facilities in the pre-school period, she holds, is vital not only to a child's ability to communicate, but to his ability to think.

This book is to be welcomed not least for its value to parents, but because it shows the young teacher, who may not regard herself as a genius of the Sybil Marshall calibre, that she can straight away become an effective member of a team, which is concerned with all aspects of children's development.

Anthony Weaver.

Douglas Can't Read

**Educational Explorers Ltd., Reading.
SBN 85225 531 4, 6s.**

At the 1966 Conference of the United Kingdom Reading Association I proposed the term 'mini-study' for a suggestion by Dr. J. Daniels to the effect that what was required in research into reading problems was a series of studies in depth of individual children rather than further large scale long term surveys. Educational Explorers Ltd., have now published just such a mini-study entitled 'Douglas Can't Read'. The author, Sister Mary Leonore Murphy writes convincingly of the progress of Douglas, a ten year old Australian boy whose complete illiteracy was presented to her as an educational challenge. We meet Douglas after he has long ago been written off as ineducable and subnormal. We leave him only some thirty teaching hours later having seen him conquer all his difficulties.

Even taking 'Douglas Can't Read' as a mini-study, psychologists will object to the paucity of 'hard' information. Only the initial reading age is given (Schonell R4: 5y 7m) and there is no mention of I.Q. let alone of tests of visual discrimination/memory, auditory discrimination/memory, or of visual-auditory association. Again, whilst emotional problems centred on reading are mentioned, little attention is paid to them. But such an attitude calls to mind Wordsworth's line 'We murder to dissect'; Douglas' problems are seen as a whole and on a broad front: he cannot read. The solution must, therefore, lie in attack on a broad front: he must be taught. Action: he is taught. Result: he can read. It all sounds so wonderfully simple. And if it were not simple it would be wonderful. As it is simple it is tragic for Douglas sits and waits and hopes in almost every school. It gives one's professional conscience an appalling shock when one realises that in educational failure it is the system which is failing and not the pupil. The poor pupil is a product of poor teaching.

Sister Murphy's vocation demands truth and humility. These qualities are reflected in her writing and the only hint of criticism of Douglas' earlier teachers is immediately lost in her sympathy for the boy. Nevertheless the book is an object lesson in recovery from educational imbalance and between the lines we can read that the imbalance was both unnecessary and avoidable.

Oscar Wilde might have said that learning to read

was childhood's greatest joy; having to be taught to read was its greatest misery. Sister Murphy, in half an hours reading cover-to-cover, shows how to achieve the former without the latter.

Terrence Lee

Correspondence

Elena Torres wrote to Yvonne Moyse from Mexico, and we asked Miss Harriet Gilmour to translate points from her letter so that our readers might share it. Below is the translation:-

She begins by discussing in fairly general terms the effects of cultural and social background on her work, mentioning in particular the Mexican Revolution. Then she goes on to talk more personally, explaining that she has been profoundly influenced by the works of Mercy as set out in the Catechism. These she has tried to apply to her work and one of the conclusions she has come to is that philanthropy has little or nothing to do with Christian charity. She feels that everyone doing social work should consider their real motives and that one of the reasons they have not been as successful as was hoped in Mexico is because they have been motivated more by philanthropy than by Christian charity.

In 1924-25 she met a Mr Moran who taught Comparative Religion at Columbia University. Through his influence, and her own experiences, she has come to various conclusions a) about Christianity: that it is essentially democratic; and b) about relationships with other people which are listed under four headings: Intelligence, Sensibility, Will and Heart. She finds it difficult to decide what conditions are necessary to enable Spiritual Reality to help us with tangible reality. Finally, the spirit of education is the noblest of all but one does not know whether the major part of the task arises from an unforeseen change in human mentality, in order to bring it nearer to the Spirit which God has given as its inheritance.

Note

Our translator admits to finding the article difficult to follow and considers that it requires translating very well indeed to make it intelligible. Peggy Volkov read it and found it interesting as a re-statement of a Christian viewpoint, though she expressed doubt as to whether the editor would want to print it. We want to print all viewpoints.

Education can promote violence

by Lucile Lindberg, Queens College of the City University of New York

A Conference Report

It was a pleasure to represent the World Education Fellowship at the Association for Childhood Education International in San Diego, California April 12-19th 1968. The programme was thought-provoking with ideas presented by linguists, philosophers, Pediatricians and educators, to stimulate discussion.

Violence was a concept which was focused on by several speakers. As one of them said, 'In countries with conflicting traditions, violence is a search for identity'. An attempt was made to see what the violence was really directed against.

This is a time when much attention needs to be placed on the development of values. Children need to learn the processes through which to decide what in this world is worth fighting for.

As educators, parents, librarians, etc., we should examine carefully what responsibilities we may have had in promoting violence through our ways of working. Have our 'force feeding' methods denied boys and girls the necessary involvement in learning processes? Are we imposing pressure where we should be making it possible to develop self-discipline? Are we dictating which learnings are to be achieved without providing for learning 'from the inside out'? Are boys and girls learning skills or are they learning unquestioning obedience? How does the constant repetition often demanded effect a child's self-fulfillment?

How can we be certain that we are getting adequate criticism of our educational programme — encourage criticism rather than stifle it? How can we make use of criticism?

Answers to these questions were not presented, rather each participant was left with the task of seeking further information — opportunity unlimited.

Educating the Adolescent

by Harry Greenberg

Now that provision has been made for the education of children handicapped by various forms of emotional disturbance, it is becoming increasingly clear that a minority of these present a problem of a particularly interesting kind. It is often possible to treat and educate the maladjusted in a special school to the point where they can return to ordinary school and resume studies in the normal way. But what do you do with those who stay in a therapeutic setting until they reach their early teens and for whom there is inadequate provision elsewhere? Specifically, those adolescents of average or above average intelligence who require remedial help in some subjects but not in others; who may want to sit for examinations at some time in the future but whose work pattern is still erratic; who can talk intelligently about the films they see and the books they read, but would be (and often are) unable to use an orthodox educational programme.

This minority have usually developed a degree of personal autonomy, a level of ego development, which makes it possible for them to express themselves more freely and lucidly. Often they are found in small numbers in the senior groups in schools for the maladjusted and elsewhere where the class structure and the presence of more disturbed children is restricting. Under these circumstances the potential for creative work is often severely inhibited. It should not prove impossible to provide for a group of this kind of adolescent in an ordinary or special school under the guidance of a teacher with some knowledge of therapeutic and remedial techniques.

My own experience of this work is limited to a group with whom I have worked for some eight months in a day school for the maladjusted. At the moment the group consists of three girls and four boys. One of the boys has severe learning difficulties while another is too young to take part in the more advanced work. Ideally, the group should be more homogeneous than it is, contain both sexes in roughly equal proportions and not exceed 8/10 members.

Adolescents of the kind I have in mind have

begun to think in terms of a career and more stable relationships. As their perceptions stabilise, they become understandably more anxious than most of their age group about how successful they are likely to be and more apprehensive about the future. In terms of formal education they are often at a gross disadvantage and usually have no realistic picture of what their level of attainment should be. On the other hand they often have a considerable degree of insight into their personal difficulties, and it seems to me that if this area can be explored with tact and understanding it may be possible for them to leave school with something more valuable than a clutch of 'O' levels. When they ask about academic qualifications, often with considerable anxiety, I point out the possibilities of day-release and evening courses, and ways in which one can even satisfy university entrance requirements without having to endure the ritual of 'O' and 'A' levels. This is not unrealistic, for there are ways other than orthodox ones, and facilities for mature students are on the increase. But I take care not to imply that unorthodox methods are easier. It is not difficult to collude with the contempt for an educational system which is still, for the most part, inflexible and unadaptive; but such a collusion merely reinforces the anxiety and hostility already present in the student.

Our two local Further Education Colleges are willing to accept individual students from the group on a part-time basis so that virtually any course of study is available. This arrangement offers the advantage of considering problems arising out of the transition from a less structured and permissive environment to one of a more formal kind. And where visits to offices, factories, etc., can be arranged there is the opportunity of discussing attitudes to work and exploring fantasies about what it will be like to earn one's living. This aspect is particularly important for, in most instances, the allowance made for the maladjusted is negligible or non-existent. The employer rarely knows anything about the student's previous clinical history and it is unlikely that other employees will prove particularly tolerant or understanding if and when difficulties arise. The situation is not unlike that of the patients discharged after treatment in a psychiatric ward and find themselves in a setting where even mildly

deviant behaviour is construed as threatening or at best amusing by those with whom they work.

What I try to do in the group and with individual members is to examine what a particular institution or social situation asks of its members and whether its demands are just. Various themes emerge, are suggested, amplified; and these usually cluster around the discussion of living styles, defence mechanisms, degrees of flexibility/inflexibility in both private and public contexts. An approach of this kind invites a reconsideration of group structure and the role of the adult who approaches an educational programme from a therapeutic angle. It also raises implications which are relevant in other fields. There is a brief comment on this at the end of the paper.

The group meets in a classroom of a day school for maladjusted boys and girls in the London area. The setting is informal. Desks have been replaced by tables and chairs, and eventually each student will have a study chair: one equipped with a writing surface which can be removed completely or turned aside when not in use. A carpet, two armchairs and facilities for making tea or coffee increase the informality. The 'time table' is a flexible one and is partly determined by the times of relevant TV and radio broadcasts. The accent is on student choice. We often discuss the value of a particular programme or lesson and come to some sort of an agreement about what to include in the curriculum. There is no question of doing something because it ought to be done, (i.e. because I, the 'teacher' say 'they' ought to be doing this or that) and there is great value in discussing why a particular subject should be considered at all. This does not lead to the chaos one might expect. It may be out of the question with a class of thirty — although this is debatable. With a small group of this type it becomes something of a necessity. As for discipline, some measure is obviously necessary, but it can be introduced tactfully and obliquely — elicited from within, not imposed from without.

This sort of destructuring is bound to invite criticism from the students themselves. From time to time, one or another member of the group will argue for a more structured setting. This seems to arise when doubts occur to the student as to whether the method of study is the most effective.

There are periods when the tolerance of responsibility for his own work evokes anxiety in the student. When this happens we discuss the problems of responsibility and ways in which this is often evaded or displaced. The difficulty is not unlike that of the undergraduate in his first year at university, who, having been previously set a number of clearly identifiable tasks, finds himself in a new situation and to a greater extent on his own. In the group the tutor/student contact is continuous and there is more opportunity for realising responsibility at a particularly crucial period in the adolescent's development.

I try to arrange matters so that we come together as a group to discuss a programme or some other specific issue, while for the rest of the time each member works at what concerns him most at that moment.

Group activity, sub-grouping, working on one's own, all these offer a variety of ways of relating to me and to other members of the group; and this helps each member to explore his response. I sometimes refer obliquely to the dynamics of the group — to ways in which it is being used or abused. I do this as non-directively as possible and there is some evidence that the members have been able to use this approach. Often, the response of one student to another or to the group as a whole is modified. Hints of a change in direction can often be picked up from discussion in another context. It is interesting how often observations made in one context reappear in another: mistrust and hostility in interpersonal relationships are seen to be relevant to political confrontations, e.g. USA/USSR.

At times, what begins as a discussion of a specific topic (Stalin's purges) may freewheel into general comment and on into something not unlike free association. This happened on one occasion when I made a reference to Stalin's paranoia. Someone asked what the word meant. We talked about degrees of suspicion, heightened self-consciousness, how one decided when suspicion was unjustifiable. X. who had been sitting silent and crouched in his chair suddenly burst out with a remark to the effect that his father was 'always getting at him'. This released a number of similar complaints from other members of the group. To have intervened and

brought the discussion back to its starting point would have been beside the point. It was good that the material should have emerged. It is always possible to return to the same topic at a later date, pick up the threads and consider the argument again. What appear to be irrelevant issues can be taken up in private sessions. Occasionally, out of indifference, or perhaps because the material is threatening, a member of the group may attempt to sidetrack the group by introducing irrelevant or 'primitive' details. In a group therapy situation one might want to allow this: here the situation is different and such a technique inappropriate. There are, of course, exceptions, but on the whole it seems preferable keep the group intact during discussion. When this problem does arise I usually suggest that the issue is not quite relevant at that moment and could be raised some other time. If this proves ineffective I say that it seems to me that A. wants to interrupt the group and I wonder why. When all else fails I ask him to leave the discussion and choose some other activity. The matter can then be explored with him privately, at a later date, or immediately afterwards if this is possible.

It is useful, too, to allow a topic to develop spontaneously from the group itself, to allow each member to assume control, to opt out, take up active or passive roles and experience these without interference from me. This offers the opportunity of observing the interchange from a distance. The initial response to this approach was inhibited, but while the reaction varies, the general level of inhibition seems to have dropped.

All this raises the question of role definition on the part of the adult who has assumed responsibility for the group. My own position is complicated by the fact that I see each student privately at least once a fortnight and sometimes more frequently if it is necessary. Private sessions are unstructured and non-directive (in so far as one can be non-directive) and the student is free to raise any problem he wishes. Some are more communicative than others, but where verbal communication is low much can be inferred from tone of voice, gesture, expression. A great deal has been written on the difficulties and hazards of mixing counselling and teaching roles and a formidable case can be made out for keeping them apart. But this is not always possible and perhaps we under-estimate the

advantage of being in a position where the student can be seen in both public and private contexts. This may also facilitate the reduction of 'splitting' phenomena, ie. the student can be reminded however obliquely of behaviour in the classroom and elsewhere and an attempt can be made to integrate this with what comes up during the private session.

Each private session also affords the student (and this can be a two-way process) an opportunity to explore the anxiety and discomfort arising out of a direct confrontation with an adult. One hopes that the gains, however slight, will generalize to other situations. Perhaps one of the most valuable things to come out of this dual confrontation is the effect on the identificatory processes. Once conventional barriers have been dropped between teacher and student it becomes much easier to put projections and fantasy material to the test. The adult can be seen in a less distorted way; seen as less 'ideal', fallible, even human. He can be cross-questioned, tested, 'destroyed', reconstructed. It is an opportunity for perceptions to be put to the test at a time that may well be most favourable for this kind of adolescent: one who is gradually reassessing attitudes and possible identifications before making a more definite choice.

Some Implications

The sort of destructuring process I have been trying to describe, has been, and is being carried out in a number of schools, hospitals and other institutions. There is surely a great deal to be learnt from the Villa 21 experiment (David Cooper's **Psychiatry and Anti-Psychiatry**) the Belmont Hospital Rehabilitation Unit (R. N. Rapoport, **Community as Doctor**) and R. D. Laing's community at Kingsley Hall, among others. In most schools, mental hospitals, etc., the roles of teacher/student, patient/doctor are fixed to the point of stasis. But this demarcation is, for the most part, achieved at the expense of those who are treated or taught. In a community that lays claim to be therapeutic, role-playing of this kind precludes any meaningful confrontation. The presence of the communities I have mentioned should prompt us to look more closely at the structure of more orthodox establishments and consider ways in

which inter-personal relationships might be reformulated.

Sometimes what appears to be benevolent and paternalistic behaviour can be seen as a form of what Martin Buber has called 'sublimated violence' — the manipulation of others 'for their own good', the subtle pressure to conform, the gradual erosion of freedom. For some our society is already too permissive — 'Things fall apart; the centre cannot hold: Mere anarchy is loosed upon the world . . . The best lack all conviction, while the worst Are full of passionate intensity.' W. B. Yeats. 'The Second Coming'

But it would be a pity to over-estimate the dangers of contemporary protest and revolt, fail to see its positive and healthy aspects, react punitively and inflexibly.

The process of destructuring depends for its success on the ability to work together harmoniously in our chosen field. And this implies a greater degree of frankness and less evasion of inter-personal responsibilities than is usually the case. It is doubtful if it is possible or desirable to shed our roles completely. But it is possible not to be overwhelmed by the role one has assumed.

One difficulty is that while role-playing is usually supported by the structure of the institution, it does not follow that more flexibility is likely to enable individuals to become less role-centred. Roles are, among other things, protective devices, defence mechanisms, ways of achieving an identity. Balberine (**Residential Work with Children**) examines this problem in some detail. Talking about staff problems in a therapeutic setting, he mentions how in their previous positions his staff had been protected by their roles and how the change to a more permissive style had exposed them to 'continuous interaction at primitive levels'. Anyone who has worked in this or related fields knows how discomforting it is to be faced with his own anxiety, depression and similar states. Often where an attempt is made to establish a more permissive environment (a ward, classroom, etc.) within an orthodox setting the staff who are not involved in the experiment often feel threatened and react with

incomprehension and hostility. This in turn has the effect of alienating staff and isolating those in their care. Clearly, one of the reasons why we have to segregate the 'patient' or the 'maladjusted pupil' to an unnecessary degree in special wards, schools, etc. is that many of our colleagues find the proximity intolerable.

Another and very important problem is raised in Rapoport's (**Community as Doctor**) study of staff relations and attitudes at Belmont. He refers to the 'collusive anxiety cycle' arguing that when the structure and organization of the community or group is not as sound as it might be, role boundaries become obscured to the point where neither staff nor those in their care know what to expect. This can result in a heightened degree of uncertainty which may be followed by anxiety; and where the situation deteriorates still further the collusive anxiety follows: balance having been lost, the staff member/s take up one of two positions — retreat into a rigid professionalism (over-distant, over-detached) or a collusive involvement with their charges. Both positions are indefensible: the former precludes meaningful inter-personal relationships and militates against therapy: the latter supports and reinforces phantasy and projection.

The problem is not peculiar to this situation. It has important implications for other contexts; for the family unit, the group, the community. The only viable position would seem to lie between the two extreme points of under-and over-involvement. Not an altogether startling conclusion at which to arrive, but one that we need to remind ourselves of from time to time.

THE SUMMER CONFERENCE

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LODGE HILL RESIDENTIAL CENTRE,
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Further details will be circulated shortly

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Central Bureau for Educational Visits and Exchanges — twenty years.

The Bulletin of the Central Bureau prints a special edition to mark the twentieth birthday of a lively and necessary organisation that grew to meet a great need. What strides in educational visiting the Bureau has promoted in 20 years and how the idea has snowballed to become a real force in education for world citizenship.

A week seldom passes but we hear of some young person who has slipped off into Europe or farther afield either on a limited visit or for a year or two. The university student who twice crossed the desert once alone while making a study of problems of the Arab world; the schoolboy member of a writers' circle with which I am connected who chose wandering round the world to A-levels and who wrote graphic descriptions of his journey to Palestine where he stayed a year returning with a Palestinian wife; the machinist who worked in a cafe by night to save up for three months in Europe and whose sense of fine art and adventure exceeded her powers of spelling so that she wrote a post card from Dubrovnik 'Cannot hitch in Jugoslavia-Know roads here;' all of them illustrate more than the fascinating facts in this celebration issue what this organisation has helped to start. A world outlook grew not out of advice or aphorism but out of helping would be travellers to achieve their ends.

We congratulate Educational Exchange Bulletin on this special issue.

'RIGHT-HAND, LEFT-HAND'

The work of Jerome Bruner

Speaker: Miss M. Roberts,
University of London Institute of Education,
at THE SIDNEY WEBB COLLEGE,
ROOM 28, BARRETT STREET, LONDON, W.1

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TUESDAY, 11th JUNE, 1968
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S. Gudmundson, The Worlds Work, 16s.

JOURNALS and BULLETINS

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Editorial Notes

'Never let it be forgotten that every human being bears in himself that indelible something which belongs equally to the whole species as well as that particular modification of it which individualises him.' Samuel Taylor Coleridge.

We have to apologise this month as the articles we advertised for June and July issues have had to be re-arranged for publication because of an unforeseen delay over the report about the 'Attitudes to School' which was to have featured in June. This report will appear in the next issue (July/August). Mr John Taylor fortunately sent his article based on his talk to the after-Easter

Working Party on pupil counselling so this adds to the interest of this issue. We also had to hand an interesting article from Mr. Harry Greenberg on Educating the Adolescent which follows the note about the Christian teamwork project. We have also Raymond King's general report of the working party and an interesting article about counselling from an Essex headmaster, Mr K. Portman which we hope will prove provocative on an issue that needs a lot of discussion. To complete the sidelight on the working party we have observations from a student undergoing training at Keele University, D. M. Anthony. We still await some comment from those undergoing counselling to round off the picture. I believe that we may later get this sort of material from Murial Kay who this month has reviewed a book by Elizabeth Richardson, for the benefit of our readers. Anyone who has similar material is asked to write about it.

Very important is the first article 'Creative Education and the Musician' by Antony Brackenbury. In fact it may explain why we dared to start with a quotation from Coleridge and then to write a factual paragraph. There may seem a tendency to separate, pigeon hole and departmentalise both in life and education in our day and generation. Coleridge relates the individual not only to the local caring community but to the general history of man on earth. It is a wide canvas that includes all the educational and emotional theories and ideals that men have lived by and the drives that have sent them on their way. One of the drives that men have lived by and made life worth living by is the drive of the artist. Cultures have held together by this drive. It has often been used in the service of religion. This article draws our attention to an aspect of discipline creatively used in the development of the self which may have been too long unconsidered by creative educationists. Coleridge has much to say that is probably ahead of modern thought in education. He would have enjoyed this article about musical education. No amount of counselling can offer our pupils happiness in the immediate sense of getting even the friends they want, but excellence in one art alongside 'unhampered growth in the other arts of living' can offer a richness in personal fulfilment that has in it that 'indelible something' that comes from the whole race.

Schooling and the Self Concept

by **R. L. Richer**, Leicester University School of Education. Adolescent Attitudes Research Unit.

In 1962 Tibble reported in *New Era* a study of communications between adults and adolescents.¹ Fourteen group leaders, each experienced in taking unstructured, permissive group discussion, were asked to gather together from different sections of the community, groups of their own choosing. Initially, a series of statements were used to provide a common basis for the discussion and responses to these were reported in addition to brief accounts of each group's subsequent reflections.

In two recent pilot researches, we have further developed the method of interview by unstructured group discussion. In both these related studies we have utilised the same basic pattern of working: tape recorded group interviews being evaluated by the Researchers and written up in summary form for subsequent discussion.

Both surveys were designed in part to determine the attitudes of adolescents to themselves in relation to their experience of schooling. In effect, they were both seen as consumer studies of educational provision offering an opportunity for young people to recall freely their experience of the processes of schooling. In all but a few instances, the groups concerned were seen twice. In the first session interviewers introduced the topic of school and schooling, whilst in the second interview the young people were asked to talk about themselves. In the main survey, 40 such double interviews were carried out in youth clubs or centres throughout England and, in a further six discussions, interviewers attempted to explain one or the other of the two topics or to relate both topics in a single session.

Initially the researchers conducted a number of pilot studies with the intention of producing a formal questionnaire but it became clear that only in a permissive and informal setting were they likely to get direct information on the adolescents' reaction to the schooling process. Responding in writing would inhibit many respondents, given that we could produce

a priori a relevantly exhaustive questionnaire whether open ended or closed. Moreover, we found that a group response gave members the opportunity to check and reflect on their statements and allowed both members and interviewers to tease out the implications of remarks in supplementary questioning.

The Interview Schedule

The interviews of the main study were carried out by interviewers selected by area leaders without reference to the researchers. The only direct link between the interviewers and the research unit, therefore, was the interviewers booklet. This schedule gave guidance on the selection of the sample, on the role of the interviewer, and on the method and presentation of the interview. We outlined the method of interviewing and indicated the ways in which, by asking supplementaries, the interviewers could guide members to discuss attitudinal areas under study. Examples of the response which we had encountered were given so that the interviewer could see something of the way we wished to build up an account of each interview and opportunity was given in schedule for interviewers to note their reactions to the discussions. In one case this proved to be particularly valuable. A group who had been extremely reticent at their second interview opened up and talked freely after the tape had run out. In view of the subsequent responses it is to be noted that the questionnaire was even in tone and throughout stressed the need for listening carefully to responses. There was no indication in the material sent out that the unit was looking for or expecting a set pattern of response.

In the Spring of 1967 the researchers contacted a number of people whom it was thought would be interested in discussing ways and means of carrying out a youth club survey of adolescent attitudes. Arising from these enquiries three College of Education lectures undertook to organise some of the research by selecting and supervising suitable students in interviewing techniques: two Further Education officers offered to extend our study in their neighbourhoods by guiding youth leaders in the interviewing for the study whilst a youth service area officer and a detached youth worker made similar arrangements

to cover the clubs in their areas. Subsequently, two Community service groups extended the research programme. The seven area leaders were familiar with the group study methods involved and were able to choose interviewers who could most easily carry out the requirements of the survey. At the initial meetings with the area leaders, stress was laid on the Researchers concern to develop such informal methods of interviewing; that our methods were exploratory and that we wished to confine the study to young people over statutory school leaving age. Subsequently an interview pro forma was prepared for each interviewer and these were distributed by the area leaders. The complete anonymity of the study was further guaranteed. by this method of organisation since the researchers had no contact with the interviewers either before, during or after the interview.

Distribution of the Surveys

The seven areas chosen gave the enquiry a wide geographical coverage, drawing responses from the following areas:—

Table 1

Area of Survey	Number of Clubs
North West Midlands	8
London	4
South Yorkshire	6
South East	3
South Midlands	7
North East Coast	5
West Riding	7
	—
	N= 40
	—

In addition there were pilot studies carried out prior to the formulation of the interview schedule. It will be seen that the study does not reflect responses from the extreme north west (i.e. the Manchester/ Liverpool conurbation) nor does it cover the South West. We have no ground for assuming that either of these areas would have shown a marked difference in response. Hargreaves' study of schooling in the North West would seem to be consistent with the material presented.²

Sample

The selection of the sample in each club was

left to the discretion of the interviewer and/or club leader within the broad framework laid down in the schedule. The total number of respondents for each interview were 304 and 286 respectively. Details of the breakdown by sex are given in Table 2.

Table 2

Total number of Clubs	1st Interview		2nd Interview	
	M	F	M	F
40	187	117	171	115
	1st Int. N=304		2nd Int. N=286	

It will be seen that there were more young men than young women in the sample overall. Only one group was drawn from a boys' club, the preponderance of young males being representative of mixed club membership generally and suggests that interviewers endeavoured to interpret the notion of representative sampling strictly. Local authority clubs tend to cater mainly for former modern school pupils, i.e. in terms of the school population as a whole, grammar and upper age comprehensive school pupils are under represented in such groups. In the upper age ranges (18+ — 21) attendances at colleges of further education, colleges of education and university tends to take the more highly educated into a distinctive youth culture of their own. In addition the 16 — 18 year olds who are staying on at school with the intention of qualifying for such further education find the requirements of their homework timetables make it difficult if not impossible for them to be active club members of the LEA Clubs. There are, however, a number of young people from these groups in all clubs. Leaders and interviewers were, therefore, able to draw together fairly representative samples of the local school population.

The advent of comprehensive schooling makes comparison between school groups difficult. Streaming is a criterion which could be used, but the nature of our enquiry precluded such a detailed study of the educational history of each individual. Increasingly, the only clear line will be that between those pupils leaving at the statutory age and those pupils who are staying on. In this survey the staying on groups included Vth and VIth form pupils in modern schools, technical schools, comprehensive schools and

grammar schools and formed approximately one third of the whole. If anything the groups had fractionally more than less able pupils in their overall composition, i.e. the responses here presented are not derived in their entirety from a former sub-group of modern schools; quite specifically they are not the Robinsons of the Newsom report. The material derives from a population which covers the whole range of secondary education; the Browns, the Jones, the Robinsons and the Smythes.

Having emphasised this point, it is perhaps equally necessary to point out that the nature of the task undertaken in each group ruled out any form of detailed analysis of individual contributions.

The researchers were concerned only that each group membership be representative of educational provision in each locality and that in the sample overall we should have roughly equal numbers of each sex and a proportional representation of all types of school.

Though we are not here seeking to lay a great emphasis on the accuracy of the sampling procedure, we are not seeking either to deny its value. The material in these studies derives its value from the nature of the study. It is to be seen as ecological study, as an attempt to gain from a number of widely spread habitats information about the distribution of feelings, of their strength, of the vigour of their growth and of the nature of their development. Making cross sections of plants does not exhaust the possibilities of our describing them; no questionnaire can hope to reflect fully the tone, the indignation, or anger, the yearning or tenderness of a response or indicate the conviction or commitment of the respondent. Yet it is precisely these details which we attend to when we seek to evaluate attitudes.

Essentially, therefore, the work here to be reported is exploratory; hypothesis forming rather than confirming, descriptive rather than definitive but equally scientific, equally neutral in its approach. We have put this at some length since there is a good deal of misunderstanding about the nature of enquiry in the social sciences: to repeat, the model is that of the observing sciences: botany, zoology, anthropology. We are here engaged in looking into and reporting on

behaviour in process and have endeavoured to study 40 distinctive sub-cultures and compare them. In this way the material reflects the experience of young people in over a hundred schools of all kinds. We have no reason for believing that the discussion which follows is a typical of contemporary secondary schooling. But first two representative extracts are presented: each is written to convey the spoken language.

Youth Club Interview. Main Sample No. 34

Setting.

The club office of a large Midland club.

Sample.

At the first interview there were six young men and three young women. All had either left school or were over leaving age. Two had been educated at Catholic schools, four at one co-ed modern school, one at another modern school and two at a grammar school. Two of the modern school pupils had stayed on, one to a sixth form. Eleven members attended the second interview. Three former modern school pupils, one of whom was out of work and two former modern school girls joined the group whilst three ex-modern school boys and one ex-grammar school girl dropped out.

Introduction.

The interviewer asked each member to sign on and then said, 'start anywhere you like. What did you think of the school you were at?'

Initial Reaction

A former modern school pupil argued that teachers should be made to retire at 50 because 'they're too old and doddery' and 'bloomin' don't know what they're doing'. Some 'couldn't remember from one day to the next. Their reactions were slow to things; they were just not with it'.

A former pupil of a church school found 'you could talk to younger teachers better than older teachers'. Older teachers were stricter. 'If they say something and you disagree with it and you say you disagree with it, they have a go at you sort of thing'. Younger teachers listened to your point of view. They knew 'what it was like' for the younger generation.

Teachers are only worried about you if you didn't turn up, but that was because of the rules about attendance. Similarly, they cared about you passing the examinations, at least as much because it did 'something for them' and 'the school's good name' as they did about you. Occasionally 'you did get a teacher who cared personally about you'.

Subjects could be made 'terribly boring for you because of the way the teacher teaches you' 'We'd got this middle-aged teacher and he doesn't teach us very well. He just keeps on talking all the time and we find it very boring and the only time we do get interested is when we do experiments'.

The grammar School's image was used as a threat. Other people were 'given the opinion that it was a very good school, one of the best and all this'. The former Grammar School pupil found this 'rather hypocritical'. The Head made the school look like a terrific outstanding school, but if you spend a day or a week there, you find out its not what its made out to be. You find its very boring and some of the rules are ridiculous. They treat you like infants or something'.

Male and female members recalled rules which seemed stupid: 'not eating in the street' being a typical instance. The head of one school had given the impression of being frightened of the opinion of the school governors. If you were 'eating an iced lolly, a governor might come along and say to the headmaster why don't you teach him not to do this'.

A modern school pupil, asked if he liked lessons replied, 'You must be joking'. 'You see', he said, 'I haven't got a brain on my shoulders, put it that way. If anybody tries to teach me anything it goes in one ear and out of the other. I can't sit and listen to anybody. I can't take anything in'. When 'we had writing up on the board and that that's the only time I learnt. I reckon you learn a lot easier reading for yourself'.

Most lessons were recalled as 'pen pushing all the while'. Maths teaching had changed since they'd left school, but if you were bad at it and didn't like the teacher you wouldn't get on. You could sometimes like part of a subject but not all of it.

You might like experiments but not science homework: the same was true for fieldwork. Yet you'd got to learn the syllabus.

In the workshops teachers showed you how to do things. In the classroom they 'explained at the board' and then they'd sort of 'tell you I've shown you, you work it out: not come to join you personally'.

Religious education was criticised. 'You don't go home and read the Bible'. Schools' 'simplified service' was also part of their interest in 'making you Christians'. Members said they 'used to sit there in separate House groups and just have a lark': 'we never used to listen to a word they said'.

Schools had to have assemblies 'Its the law', 'its the whole idea of it'. 'Why hadn't it been revised'? A member suggested that 'no one had complained about it, they hadn't spoken up about it'. A young woman agreed that 'you just accepted it', 'you just had to attend assembly', though as members agreed, it was boring.

Television teaching fell into the same category for some members. At one school they'd used it for careers. 'We used to go and sit and watch the telly', a member noted, with evident distaste. The interviewer tried to defend the programmes, saying they had been carefully designed. But members argued they couldn't fit the work of each individual school. The interviewer argued that 'basically somewhere each teacher will be teaching the same subject at sometime or other', but one member dismissed this intervention, saying 'some teachers used to teach a lot of old rot'.

Teaching staff had changed quickly. The modern and lower stream pupils said the 'got fobbed off with all the old . . .'. In the lower classes they 'changed every six months'. 'They don't get education, they just go from one day to the next'. 'All pupils should be taught at the same level' and then 'the dull ones would catch up'. They couldn't if you didn't teach them the same. Teachers 'didn't take enough interest in the duller ones. They just let them get on'. You got 'no end of daft teachers in the bottom classes'.

In the 'C' 'stream you spent 'no end of time

gardening'. 'Raking and cutting grass' but 'they wouldn't let us do the cementing'. 'Some teachers don't give you a chance'. 'They had their favourites', but perhaps 'it was only natural'. 'Everybody has a certain mate'. 'If you got in with them' the teachers called the pupils by their christian names and chatted with them after school. Work copied from a favourite would be marked differently: instances were quoted.

A teacher had poked a boy in the eye with one of the big rings she wore. Then she took him to the Head and got him caned. The interviewer was surprised. 'Surely there's not much of that going on in schools'? Members chorused 'Yes', 'Yes'. She punched him'. 'There was a teacher up at our school, some boy left his book at home, the teacher lost his temper, started hitting the boy round the face'. It's always preached don't kick but 'the teacher started kneeing so the boy hit the teacher'. That teacher 'had kicked a boy before'.

In another school, a music teacher had 'grabbed by the hair', a boy who had forgotten to bring his hymn book and 'punched him in the face'. 'That's against the law, isn't it'? Teachers generally 'grabbed you by the neck'. 'You're taken advantage of: you can't fight back'. The interviewer said that there must be some discipline, but members protested 'not like that'. Good teachers who talked to pupils were appreciated: not the ones who 'grabbed at you, punching you in the face or giving you the stick'. At the top end of the school, the friendly teachers talked to you. It was in the middle of the school that the 'malicious punishment comes about'. 'Not the young ones or the older ones' remarked one member, 'I don't know why this is but this happens'.

Two lads had been caught trying to get out of school over a fence at dinner time and they were sent to the 'main head caning teacher bloke'. 'He was the caning teacher'. Frightened, they told him a lie and 'he let us off'.

A young woman teacher who was against the cane had to put up with classes that ran wild. The pupils insulted her but she wouldn't report them as she knew they'd get the cane. In one school caning had been abolished. It was much better

'you learn by people talking to you. A whack on the backside doesn't teach you much does it'? If pupils were very difficult they were suspended or expelled, but generally the head 'talked it out with you'.

Another head was 'only worried about raising money' and was 'not interested in the pupils'. A sixth form room was much appreciated but you should be allowed out at lunch time. Another school had a sixth form room and pupils were seen to enjoy it and to treat it sensibly.

There was no mucking around at 18 and 19 but the junior forms were different. They still treated you as children in the lower forms, and the majority of teachers were like that. They should do something when they started training teachers, before 'they established their views'.

A teacher on yard duty had made the pupils 'stand up, stand at ease, and when he shouted 'Attention', we all had to jump in line'. And when he 'called out, I want the boy who . . . and all, it was ridiculous'. School was too fussy about uniform. You couldn't wear it out of school. They would complain about it 'right down to wearing grey socks'. They just say 'you've got to do it and that's all there is to it'. Teachers contradicted themselves. They would wear the things they'd told you not to wear and smoke when they told you not to.

Teachers keenness to get money for masses or for charity, led to wasting time. A teacher had pretended to put money in a boy's ear, then she started slapping him round the face asking him to deal out the money. A voluntary charity in another school had led to class teachers making demands on pupils. 'From now on each pupil is going to give a penny' was something they'd no right to ask.

Big classes created difficulties. You could ask in a small class, but in a large class 'they'd write things up on the board and tell you to come at lunch time or break'. 'They'd got no time at all for you'. A member suggested teachers put work up on the board so 'they could get on with their marking so they didn't have to do it at night'.

Some teachers were okay but 'bad teachers were straight out of the book'. A good teacher had

'to know what they were doing', 'not somebody who goes mad for no reason whatsoever at the slightest thing'.

Nobody wanted to be like a teacher but one teacher was remembered as being 'friendly and willing to have a joke'. Often 'you wanted to fall asleep in their lessons'. There were some queer cases. One teacher came in and said 'Right to-day we are doing so and so, but as I don't know any so and so, go to the library and get a book about it' and read about it. Another male teacher 'had fits'. 'He had to always have fresh air'.

Second Interview

Introduction

Members signed on and then the interviewer said, 'This is about how you think you have been influenced by your environment and what you think of yourself.'

Initial Reaction

About what? Ha? Come off it? Members repeated the question to each other and then the group fell silent.

Development

Helped by the interviewer, a member said she 'got on well with people' but didn't know why. A young man said you were influenced both by good and bad examples. There were people you didn't want to be like. Asked what you did if people didn't like you, the young man said 'if they don't like me I don't care; if they don't like me, I don't go with them, do I?'

Asked if their parents had influenced them a young woman member explained she had 'only got my Father'. She 'loved him as a father' but 'when he tells me not to do something, I think of what he says, discuss it and work it out and see if its a good idea. If not, I go my own way'. She had made the same adjustment to school. In the fifth and sixth year she 'used to let them get on with it' and go her own way. You were treated as a grown-up when doing week-end work. They said they were going to 'treat you like adults' when you were in the fifth form, but 'I don't think they could do that when you're part of a form'.

Another male member had found that some teachers treated you as equals, especially the

teachers who had been in industry and who came into teaching 'late in life'.

These teachers were much more interesting. Younger teachers were too 'easy to get on with when they were young', 'you played about with them'. The older teachers gradually 'got into set ways', 'they start off in the same way': 'every day's the same'.

Teachers who were constantly 'on at you', or 'shouting', 'made you feel mad', 'You get so fed up, you know what they're going to say next' and you just sit there and 'they wonder why you're not interested'. 'You ended up playing noughts and crosses because you're bored'.

Schools should have a room to relax in for the older pupils. The ones who are over sixteen could smoke in 'a room like this with furniture which we could clear up ourselves'. A member asked 'Why shouldn't schools have better furniture in classrooms and for all pupils'. Taking this point up the VIth former said 'Precisely, but no matter how much you said 'Why can't we', you still couldn't'.

Smoking was discussed at length. You were punished for it at school and 'they were always saying don't smoke'. But neither masters nor advertising from the Ministry could force you. You made up your own mind'. Teachers would do better if they said 'smoke in front of me rather than smoke behind my back'. 'If they say don't, they'll go somewhere else to smoke'. Young people hadn't made the law, people before them had. In fact, you were not old enough to do anything by law. And in any case you got adverts for and against smoking on the same damned box. There were posters all over the place, and adults smoking themselves, 'yet just because they're not sixteen . . .' The laws about drinking and smoking were 'petty little rules'.

Everybody used the clubs and pubs. Adults didn't seem to like this and would sometimes clear out of a pub if they saw a big teenage group. The further education of young people hadn't helped to improve relations with the older, less educated generation.

Careers preparation was criticised. It had

seemed to several members that they were asked to state a job preference 'without ever finding out what the job was like'. The school had given them the impression that as soon as they had a job entered on their forms 'they were out of the way'. A young woman had observed a tendency for the school and the YEO to work from their list of vacancies and 'tell you what to do'. It became a matter of being pushed into jobs and as a consequence you might not have any interest in it.

One young man said that there had been a change in his school recently. Now work centred education began in the third year. This was seen as a good illustration of the lack of feedback from school leavers 'If they'd talked to the people who were leaving the school and asked them what was wrong with the school, instead of thinking 'we're so great', we could have told them that years ago'. That was the greatest mistake. Adults didn't realise that 'there was a mind developing there'.

There were different chances due to different distributions of subject interest. Some subjects in the fifth and sixth ensured you would be taught in small groups, others meant being taught 'in hundreds'. School status affected your post school self image. People would say 'Oh, grammar school!' the word gave a good picture in they're eyes. Exams were criticised and defended. The 11+ exams were unjust, different teachers set different standards, and examiners' standards varied. But exams were fairer to pupils who had missed schooling, and external exams set by outside authorities avoided favouritism. An illustration was given of internal assessment for CSE, in which the marking and rating was checked by another teacher 'who had never taught us and the results varied by only two marks'. There were different examination systems and each involved different degrees of difficulty in different subjects.

The group returned to a discussion of advertising, and smoking. Such campaigns were very clever, 'masterpieces in themselves'.

The Carnaby Street and Pepsi Cola image of youth was derided. 'If anybody came here like that he'd be laughed out of the club'. Members were not part of the 'Merrie City'. You didn't follow the fashion too closely but you were

influenced by what your friends said about your clothes. A member described how group pressures affected a marked change in his idea of himself. Everybody had changed so much after leaving school. 'Your outlook opened'. At school 'you were treated as a body of pupils, all the same. When you come out of school and got to work, more responsibility comes on you and you're independent'.

Uniform was expensive and outfitters' prices were often very much higher than similar clothes from local stores. You could get clothes from Woolworths which were just as suitable. Girls' uniforms, 'ties' and 'square black shoes', were subjects for gentle mockery but the equalitarian argument was put forward forcibly. Also uniform saved money especially for girls since 'they'd want to go in something new every day'. There were sexual implications in dress. If skirt lengths were emphasised by teachers, 'they made the people round her think about sex and so sex is going to be foremost'. Members questioned the nature of the teachers interest in such issues. There was the single lady teacher in a mixed school who 'after each assembly stands there at the entrance to the hall door with her eyes fixed on the girls' knees, dresses and shoes, and she lines them against the wall and says, 'shorten that skirt, change those shoes. . . '.

Would these young people be able to adapt to a new age? Members were confident they would. They would be 'willing to discuss' and to 'experiment on life'.

Youth Club Survey. Main Sample No. 24

Setting

Large Youth Centre in the South East of England.

Sample

Seven young men (age range 16-22) and one young woman (age 17+). Two young men and the young woman had stayed on for a fifth year. All had attended modern schools. The same group took part in the second interview.

Introduction

The interviewer outlined the topic for discussion and asked a member of the group to describe

his memory of schooling.

Initial Reaction

The young man questioned gave his name and said schooling 'was a bore', 'the things I wasn't any good at I didn't like and I didn't take any notice of them'. He liked the things he could do, art, craft and physical education.

Development

The interviewer put the question to the whole group. One young woman who had left at sixteen said she 'didn't like school' but she had liked two subjects English and Art. School was boring to her. To a young man religious instruction was 'a waste of time'. 'If you want to learn it, learn it, if you don't, better do something else which is more good to you'. School was 'quite a laugh'. 'You had fun', 'the teachers were fun', you could get fun from playing them up. You were bound to take that attitude in the situation. A young man had 'never had any books from the library'. Members laughed in sympathy with this expression of attitude.

You should have been allowed to 'spend a whole day on a special talent' and be allowed to 'bring it out a bit more'. Religious instruction was a waste of time, 'the same putrid stories every year'. It was a farce situation, teachers were paid to 'force christianity down your throats', surely they could give you a sample of all religions. They had 'cornered the market', in religions. Teachers should be a bit more broad minded.

Why couldn't you be taught something about politics rather than religion? 'Current affairs' was supposed to do this but 'it was a waste of time'. 'You never used to read papers', except at the fish and chip shop. One 15+ leaver had enjoyed science and art. 'In art you could do more or less what you wanted'. You had some sort of expression of yourself. Unless the art teacher said 'copy it', you couldn't help having freedom.

A young man recalled a teacher who told lengthy tall stories of his part in the war. Members had almost fallen asleep in his lessons. He would 'pile all the work out in one week'. Then it was 'a big mad rush'.

Mr X wasn't any good at teaching because 'he had no control over the class from the first year'. Once he picked on you 'you'd had it'. He gave people a bad name easily, then 'you were always wrong'. Such a teacher 'picked on some pupils' and the class would 'pick on him'. They were 'more ignorant than the kids'.

Entry to assembly was conducted by a strict teacher. It was 'the worst part of the day', 'all crammed in the hall'. One teacher was 'a killer'. Ex pupils found they had to talk about him. Some teachers had good ideas but some had been teaching too long. Students had varied: the girls had 'fancied one who's sold ice cream on Worthing pier'. A 'way out' drama teacher hadn't been understood. 'Just imagine going home speaking the way she'd taught us'.

Much of the PE and dancing were 'a complete waste of time'. Being made to dance with a girl was either hated or a complete laugh. The point was subjects were 'a waste of time, only because they were never any good to us when we left school. They might have been things we didn't like but they might have been of use to us afterwards in which case they wouldn't be (seem) a waste of time now'.

You'd go back if 'it was completely voluntary', then you'd do 'what you wished to learn' and 'get a better job'. Day release 'had no connections' with one young man's job. You saw all schooling as needing to have a bearing on getting a job. Current schooling was more like 'keeping you out of the way until you're old enough to walk about'.

You didn't have the faintest idea about what you wanted to be. Films and factory visits were not always helpful or appropriate. You weren't all going to be officers in the army. Often you were not given the technical detail you required: you could even be discouraged by careers teachers or the YEO. Their job was 'to make sure you're employed', not to 'make you happy in your work'. There were not always openings in the neighbourhood and when the jobs were there, there were other problems. 'I told him what I wanted to be, an apprentice tool maker and he asked me what class I was in and he said 'I don't think you'll be able to do that' and he sent

me round to the factories.' If you get into a job you didn't like you could get into a labouring job to get more money. You ended up labouring if you started switching jobs. If you were apprenticed you just didn't have the money. Anyway 'life was a bore'. You only worked because 'society expected you to work'. If you went abroad you might find new opportunities: it was hard to get in touch with the jobs you wanted to do.

A young man who wanted to be a draughtsman and had passed the Tech entrance, became a post office worker 'on the telephones'. The training for the Post Office was 'so good they didn't pay you much' so 'most of them leave'. 'They train to HNC but they never pay you'.

One young man had 'never worried at school, he'd worked from week to week'. Raising the leaving age was likely to be prolonging a waste of time. You would have stayed 'on for the money', but others 'couldn't wait to get out'. Going to tech allowed you to choose your subjects, staying on would have meant 'more of what you did the year before', you'd just 'get it all again'. If you left school and got a job and then went back for extra education after two years to train for a specialist job it would be O.K. The ideal would be a paid studentship (like some people do); say engineering for the country as a form of national service or education in place of national service. It wasn't the buildings which were the trouble at school 'it was the people who run it', 'the people you've got to learn with'.

If you were in class and people were 'messaging about', 'taking the micky or something' and 'fooling around' you didn't learn much. In colleges and schools you were 'crammed up in kids desks', and taught in 'cold dreary classrooms'. These were sharply contrasted to the GPO's good facilities. In English lessons 'they go on about verbs and nouns or something'. 'You know it's not going to do you any good when you hear it'. 'So you don't pay attention'. You didn't go round saying 'oh, that's a noun': spelling was more important since it affected your job. But 'if you couldn't spell 'disintegrated' you could always put 'fell to pieces'.

But the basic issue was in school behaviour.

It affected all you did. In reading in class your books were 'given to you to read', issued; 'set'; you 'had to' take part in plays and poetry competitions. The poems were neither modern nor classical: it was mediocre stuff; 'rubbish, I'd call it'. The things that happened in school were all related to the force situation. You were made to take part in athletic events. A young man got his kit dirty on one day and was suspended from the team for not having his kit clean for the following day. A young man was told that if he didn't get in, in the first ten, he'd get put in detention.

If you didn't like games you were forced to make excuses. You could be scared of some sports activities in school and were happy to find ways of getting out of doing them. Gardening was 'a waste of time', 'a laugh'.

Some young people in the fourth year decided they disagreed with religion and asked to be excused from assembly. Others just hid. Some teachers were long winded and boring. You 'never made any progress because they were always 'doing the recap'. The history of the Middle Ages was boring: of the Stone Age 'a complete farce'.

School visits were a giggle but were recalled with pleasure. Too frequently preference was given to 'A' stream pupils, they might have ten trips in a term. The 'C' stream 'never complained about it', they 'just noticed they weren't going anywhere'.

Punishment at school was often futile, 'you regret it at the time' when given corporal punishment but later it became part of the laugh: the funny side of school. One teacher had used a method of caning with a ruler when 'he'd bring it up underneath to take the top off your nail'. A geography teacher hit you with a rolled up map. Another would hit you round the face.

One lady teacher was terrible though she got some results. 'She was a maniac, you couldn't say anything but you'd get hit round the face'. Much depended on the teacher: you respected some teachers and a head was recalled as being 'willing to have a joke'.

At school you could relieve the tension by drawing cartoons of the teachers. Strong feelings were aroused as the group turned to talk about uniform. Surely wearing jewellery 'wasn't a crime'. You could only wear a St. Christopher. Teachers tell you to change your skirt if they objected to its colour or your style of jacket. Hair was also a problem. One head was pretty good 'he'd let things go'. If somebody 'tortured the science master' the head would let it go. 'He was so far gone nothing could be done about it'. But the same head would look after a student teacher.

If pupils were in trouble they would be sent for and could be stood outside the head's door for two hours waiting to see him. The meeting ended with the group laughing at a story of an injustice which had been seen as a great joke by the member concerned.

Second Interview

The interviewer opened out the subject, giving a brief biography of each member to enable them to talk freely about themselves. Having reminded the group that people had many different images of themselves which they displayed in changing situations, the interviewer asked the group what they thought they were like.

Initial Reaction

Members were hesitant to respond but a male member offered to say what he thought he was like. He 'hoped he'd got a nice personality, a bit unfriendly'.

Development

Members just didn't know about themselves, you just had 'no idea', 'everybody knows but me'. One member hoped he had good taste, another that he was too modest, but generally you 'didn't think about yourself'.

'You like people who are like you', 'you like somebody who's got things you haven't, 'the people who are the sort of people you are'. You may like somebody who's not as good as yourself even more'.

You liked people in different ways. You liked people at work in one way, people outside work in another. You 'didn't like people who took

advantage of you', codgers who never returned cigarettes and people who borrowed money and didn't give it back.

You 'liked people who were funny' but disliked those who were 'sarcastic' or know it all. You didn't like boastful people who told you what they'd done and suggested what you ought to do. Love affairs were discussed, Each pairing built you up, but if you packed her up you gained 'in self esteem' whereas if she packed you up you lose'. 'People don't sort of make friends and file them', friendship persists, but moving about in different areas and especially the transition from school to work meant making new friends and forgetting others. It was difficult to keep in touch with people. Few members of the group kept up pen friendships: it was a matter of seeing people regularly. If you didn't you just lost them.

Mistakes at work made you feel anxious. You tried not to make mistakes, but you didn't really worry too much. You didn't like to mess things up: it gave you a guilty conscience.

Members of the group didn't like the idea of hurting people and didn't like upsetting people. Sometimes you said things you regretted, things you'd said in haste in an argument. Members agreed that they too had a need to shift the blame for their bad behaviour on to other people.

Members expressed their interest in being good at something, without showing off but you disliked those who tried to explain something, 'when they didn't know what they were talking about' or insisting on 'explaining something you didn't want to know' or 'telling you how to do it right'. When you couldn't listen any longer you'd opt out. You didn't like a knowall. Some people didn't want to share their knowledge: they really wanted to keep it back and hadn't the knack of helping young people.

The trouble with knowalls was their trying to give the impression that they were able to do anything and understand everything. Such persons were unlikely to be good actors since you had to have an awareness of yourself and the role you were taking to put a part over.

Members disclosed various roles they would like to

take. It was pleasant to pretend for a while to be the person you would like to have been, 'to be something you wish you were', through dressing up or taking a part.

One member suggested that being a pirate, or smuggler, would be interesting. Another argued he'd like to emulate the train robbers or steal the crown jewels, and hand them back. The idea was to have fun without hurting anybody.

Wouldn't this mean hurting the general public? Members didn't see this. Who were the general public?? 'We're not the public'. 'I don't regard anybody I know as part of the public'. 'The general public are those I don't know'. If I was talking to him he wouldn't be a part of the general public and I wouldn't be part of the public to him'. It applies to everybody really: 'the general public are all the rest'.

One ideal was to commit a crime which didn't involve physically hurting anyone, avoided your being punished and yet allowed you to get away with it. You could prove something could be done and give it back: 'it would be great to steal the crown jewels'.

Another member put forward a plan for an ideal murder. The whole point was to create a situation where the body was found and still you got away with it. Members were advised to read 'Crime & Punishment' before contemplating the perfect crime.

Members considered various adventures they had had: breaking in their homes late at night was one which had been tried out by several young men. Often you had day dreams when you planned major crimes, like breaking into a bank. Such situations would help to meet your need for excitement and adventure: being on a deserted island was suggested or having 'a filthy great forest to clear'.

Members discussed the daily newspapers in derisory terms, yet admitted to reading them from 'the crumpet on page 2' to the sports pages. Political news was a waste of time and members disparaged the honours system. Chichester was harmless but 'he was getting a Sir out of it'. The birthday honours helped to distinguish the

Lords, Knights and Beatles from the general public.

A need for recognition and approval was seen to underline these various ideas of the self image. Dress was important here. Members noted the difference between being untidy and being casual in dress. On the train you saw older people in their style of clothes and wondered who was right. It was suggested that 'as you get older you smarten yourself up'. 'When you get in your twenties and as you get more responsibility it tends to reflect back in your clothing and such like'. This member the post office engineer 'hardly ever' wore jeans now.

The session closed with a discussion of individual members personal interests and pursuits. These ranged from 'watching people' to a satirical debunking of the general public.

Discussion of the Interview Material

The following discussion falls into three sections. The first considers the recollections respondents offered as illustrative of the in-school attitudes of teachers. The second looks at the situational elements described by these former pupils as illustrative of the social values and attitudes conveyed to them through the social process of school. In the third we consider the whole system as a psycho-social process and draw out some of the wider implications.

Attitudes of teaching staffs

Though respondents make exceptions throughout the material it is evident that in the eyes of the young people surveyed a great deal of contemporary schooling is boring, irrelevant and punitive. Though respondents see this situation as arising in part through the functioning of the schooling system provided for the secondary age range, they tend to stress that the major source of their dissatisfaction lies in the attitudes of members of staff. Group members suggested that the able teacher is young, tolerant, friendly, fair, kind, patient and understanding. They work with pupils sharing their interests and experience: are intelligent without conceit and controlling without violence. Such teachers are engaged seriously in their work, clearly demonstrate their interest in subjects and are anxious to help pupils learn. Yet they are able to relax, to take

a joke against themselves and are willing to make a place for humour in the give and take of the classroom situation.

Members responses indicate that such teachers are to be found in schools but that they are rare birds. Schooling is largely recalled in terms which suggest that the majority of teachers contribute to maintaining a coercive pressure sustained by a continual effort of will and supported by formal and informal punishment systems.

One sub-group which emerges from the data are the teachers who are defined by pupils as 'weak'. It would seem that such teachers, though no less likely to use the cane or slipper than other teachers were unable to compete with them, or maintain the harsh social distance used by the stronger, and more domineering teachers. Weak teachers, where they were condemned, were seen to be unable to sustain discipline despite their use of punitive techniques.

Other sub-groups include the 'queer cases', teachers who fooled about, who were incapable of keeping to the point, who gabbled, or who were so sensitive as to be incapable of any form of class discipline. A larger sub-category were the teachers who were portrayed as being simply indifferent to the progress of pupils in the classroom. Such teachers 'put their feet up in the classroom', they 'couldn't be bothered with us'.

We have noted that respondents stressed that they preferred young teachers. It was strongly argued that old teachers should take primary classes and that adolescents should be taught by teachers in the age range 25-40. The upper age limit was repeatedly emphasised: teachers who were over 40 and who had no children of their own were seen as being incapable of understanding the needs of adolescents. In any case youth required activity in adult teachers. Once past middle age most teachers were seen as being physically incapable of sharing the adolescents world of experience.

However, the most significant material to emerge from this survey is the lengthy account of the attitudes and behaviour of teachers in

general. It would seem that the teacher sub-groups we have designated, the able, the weak and the indifferent form **only one fraction of the total** behaviour pattern as seen by these young people. Their responses suggest that by far the largest group of teachers are those whose attitudes can only be described as admonitory and domineering, even hostile and rejecting.

The consistent and repeated assertion of these groups is that schooling is humiliating, particularly in early adolescence. Teachers 'treat you like kids', 'Like infants', 'like little ones', right through to the VI form in some instances. Teachers are portrayed as being coercive, even violently so. Quite apart from the formal system of punishment (which it should be noted was rarely criticised and was perhaps generally approved) teachers enforced their will by a whole range of devices ranging from shouting, blaming, nagging and teasing 'showing you up', 'bossing you' and clamping down on rule observance through to a whole range of 'rough stuff'. Examples of the latter were numerous and common to most schools. They included a great variety of descriptions of teachers striking pupils, e.g. 'punching', 'kicking', 'hitting', 'slapping', 'clouting', 'walloping', 'clogging', 'whacking', 'braying' and 'welting', and accounts of hair pulling, ear twisting and physically 'pushing you around'. Teachers are recalled as striking with a whole range of implements and it is evident that of these the commonest is the rubber gym shoe, or plimsoll referred to as 'the pump' or 'the slipper'.

Milder punishments included being made to stand on your chair or desk, standing out at the front of the class or in the corridor and being made to stand with your hands on your head. Physical education was sometimes associated with the general punishment system.

We shall consider this picture of schooling as presented by our respondents at length in our summary: there is other evidence which indicates that this description of the attitudes of teachers may be more nearly true than many would like to think. At this point, however, we simply state that the survey strongly suggests that the present secondary teaching system is seen to require teacher to play out a role which is domineering. As a consequence young people felt

that many teachers were indifferent to their interests and needs and were only concerned 'to force you to understand'.

As we see in the following section, the wide range of punishments already described by no means exhaust the teacher's range: it is clear that there are many other sub-systems for controlling pupils. Head teachers seemed to come out well. Members who had attended large schools saw little of them, in general they were associated with taking the morning assembly and in the moral law. Some were seen to be preoccupied with the social standing of their schools, particularly in having an excessive concern for academic standards to the detriment of the school as a whole. On the whole, head teachers were not seen to be involved in the routine classroom punishment systems of the schools.

The Internal system of Rules, Restrictions and Rewards

It is clear from the material that in addition to the punishment system described in the foregoing, schools also operate other systems for controlling the behaviour of pupils. Of these the most influential are the examination systems with their attendant sub systems of reporting and testimonials; this we examine separately. Other lines of control include the house point system, exclusion from lessons, detention and the use of writing as a punishment either in the form of lines or essays. The function of the prefect system we also noted. Young people showed little evidence of recalling the reward aspect of the house system with pleasure. It was seen rather as part of an elaborate device for subdividing schools and was associated primarily with the punishment system. Members instanced staff abusing the awarding of points, (caning boys in their own house and giving 'bad' points to non-house members) and instanced in mixed schools where, as a result, boys received canings for the misdemeanours of girls.

Boys were threatened with being put with girls in class or being made to line up with girls in the yard. Entry to school in the morning, at lunch time, and at the end of break was seen as a military like procedure involving lining up or of controlled large group movement. Movement after the whistle or command would be followed by punishment ranging from 'standing out', to

detention, cleaning the yard or caning.

Within the building former pupils had felt restricted by rules concerning movement and noise. Movement in and out of classrooms and 'manners' control required that pupils lined up, opened doors for staff, stood up for staff and visitors who entered the classroom and stood beside their desks waiting for permission to sit down at the start of lessons. Failure to comply with such rules could be interpreted as a breach of discipline.

The prefect system (and the high status of the selective fifth in modern schools) created a great deal of resentment. It was clear that the pupils who stayed on in any one of the schooling systems, were seen to have privileges. In the second, third and fourth years members had felt anger and annoyance about the powers of prefects to punish, particularly about their right to exclude pupils from schools at breaks and were resentful of their favoured relationships with teachers. Other privileges shared by the selective fifths and prefects were seen to include better teaching in small groups, the free run of the school building during the day, the playing of pop radio at lunch time and fewer or more adult uniform regulations.

Many members had experienced the change of identification involved in staying on. Those who had stayed on reflected this experience from the years prior to their staying on and afterwards. The selective fifth in modern schools were seen to be staying on in order to be rewarded by a better job, by teachers who 'treated you as humans' who 'didn't clamp down on you', who 'appreciated you', and offered you 'more respect' in smaller classes. Early leavers saw such groups as 'pets', licenced 'to push you around', 'weedy creatures' who would lounge around in school whilst those who were their junior by one year had to go out to play. We note that this privileged group will disappear with the raising of the leaving age: a full fifth year will take away from the status of the modern school fifths.

Teaching methods and attitudes

A great deal of teaching was seen in terms of 'exercises straight from the book'. Teachers either set work in this way, or went over it on

the blackboard. Pupils were then expected, even forced to get on with it. Once a task had been set pupils were not helped: the teachers attitude was 'I told you once', 'get on', 'don't talk.' The teaching of academic subjects was contrasted unfavourably with the teaching of crafts in this respect. Whilst class lessons were recalled as pen pushing, sitting and listening and having work 'hammered' and 'chiselled' into you, craft lessons involved teachers in working alongside you.

Members recalled being required to read limited numbers of and even single 'set' books in English, to read round the classroom, to study the parts of speech and, as part of their training for examinations, to write 'correct' rather than contentious essays.

Generally, school teachers were unwilling to initiate discussions, and when they did take place, they were likely to be restricted in scope whilst subjects were taught with examinations in view. One young man recalled that he had been taught the new Nuffield Science. 'You didn't learn it off books so much' but 'they still treated you like children'. The patterns presented of the teaching situation is one of cramming: of sticking at disliked subjects either to gain rewards or to avoid punishment.

Further Education. A contrast in Attitudes

Their experience of schooling threw the respondents assessment of education at technical colleges into a good light. Their lecturers were more interesting, they had a better attitude to work and a far better attitude to their students than former teachers had had to pupils. Pupils spoke of the improvements they had made after leaving school and undertaking part or full time FE courses. Lecturers were nearer to your age, you were nearer theirs: you wore what you liked, could eat in class and could smoke between classes. Lecturers 'thought of you differently', whilst the respondents were in any case more likely to be doing something they wanted to do, or which had a bearing on their occupation. At the technical college members discovered that teachers had been wrong to 'class you as illiterate'. When lecturers started to 'speak our language' and helped members with their mistakes, they were able to make progress.

The lack of Subject Choice

Respondents emphasised the lack of choice involved in secondary education. Choice making tended to be reserved for older pupils and was seen to be a special privilege of pupils who stayed on in modern schools.

Pupils who were not staying on explained that they felt a lack of progress in their work. Teachers were 'not bothered' with them and continually repeated the same subject work.

Members from all groups felt that they were forced to take subjects but would have preferred to be free to explore and advance the study which interested them. They strongly argued the need for subject choice because of its special relation to their future occupation. Furthermore, it was argued that choice making should be part of the pupil's training at the secondary stage. The selection of linked subjects for the purposes of examinations and leaving certificates had side effects which had caused some resentment. 'A' Girls who opted for the commerce side were opting out of sex education as 'they'd only got to flowers by the third year.' The biological sciences were similarly blocked off for boys. There were cases of teachers preventing young people taking grouped subject leaving examinations through their control of entry in the students weak subjects and cases of teachers controlling course options at GCE through link subject requirements which effectively prevented GCE being a single subject examination.

Morning assembly appears to have been accepted largely as a boring waste of time: The morning service appeared to be associated by most pupils with the punishment system. It was a time for regimentation, for conformity, for checking up on standards of dress, for setting out and repeating rules about behaviour, and occasionally for public punishment. Not infrequently the former pupils interviewed reported a clothing check either on entering or leaving the assembly. This was the time for 'staring at the head' in his or her law giving role. It was also the time when the 'main caning master' was in evidence in his role of marshal of assembly. This role was not always taken by the deputy headmaster.

Vocational Pressures and the Examination System

As we have already noted, the material strongly suggests that schools use the examination system and the vocational/occupational opportunities which it implies as part of the system of pupil control.

Former pupils stress that school teachers emphasise the occupational value of leaving certificates, CSE grades and 'O' level passes. Each grade's life chance determinants were presented in refined detail: every mark and pass level was seen to be occupationally related.

Pupils alleged that at times they were deliberately misled about the qualification requirements of trades and professions: that teachers deliberately used the known vocational value of certificates to control behaviour and this was linked to threats of poor reports and testimonials. Pupils were taught that unless they got the right grades (in CSE or GCE) then 'education was not worth it'.

Careers teachers emerged less favourably than craft teachers in terms of their interest in pupils and in their concern for vocational preparation and in initiating and supporting the pupil's transition to work. Careers teachers were seen as being 'in it for the money', 'doing it for a job', whereas several boys noted that they had been helped to get jobs by craft specialists. Such teachers were often seen as being more au fait with industrial standards and requirements, practical and even zealous for the future of skilled craftsmen. By contrast, careers teachers were seen as being largely concerned to provide details about jobs put out of reach by examination requirements.

The Streaming System

There was considerable feeling that streaming 'branded' individuals at every ability level.

The streaming system was seen to offer differential advantages: 'A' stream pupils had more privileges, were taken on more visits and enjoyed more school trips whilst teachers constantly stressed overtly and by implication their occupational advantages.

Streams were seen to be referred to by teachers and pupils as differentiating the 'high' from the

'low', the 'brainy' from the 'stupid', the good material from the 'tramps'. Members argued that the process was self fulfilling. 'Low' pupils were given older and less capable teachers. They were not asked to do new work but rather spent their time going over and over the same sequence of study. They were expected to take relatively more menial tasks in school. Teachers had given the impression that they were not bothered with the success of less able children. Male members argued that though they were potential tradesmen, teachers saw them as future labourers, and were not prepared to teach them.

'Ridiculous' Rules

Teachers were seen to impose many ridiculous rules as part of the punishment system. These related to the wearing of uniform and of style and cut of hair, (male and female) were mentioned throughout. Frequently these rules were related to the loss of individuality in school. Regulations about the wearing of uniform extended from caps and berets to the colour of socks and of underclothing. Schools often checked outer clothing, for example dress lengths and material used for trousering. Changing for PE offered an opportunity to enforce rules about undergarments. Examples of such checks in girls schools bordered on the absurd.

Uniforms seemed to be designed to emphasise the juvenile rather than adolescent, some large schools indicating year grades by uniform. The correct wearing of full uniform was seen as evidence of identification with the official mores of school and therefore, it frequently indicated that the wearer was either an 'A' stream pupil, a member of the selective fifth year or an aspiring or actual prefect. 'Silly rules' included; restrictive rules being applied to pupils of 18+; rules governing access to and use of toilets; stipulations about the wearing of jewellery and the banning of watches; the control of movement in school and the use of school premises at lunch time. It was noted that pupils going home or to cafes in the school neighbourhood enjoyed unrestricted movement at lunch time. Pupils who stayed at school were confined to parts of the school premises. Staying indoors at lunch time was as already noted, a privilege of the prefects, the selective fifth, or the sixth form.

The influence of the external social system

Though members were aware of the vocational implications of education, they tended not to see employers as important influences on the internal processes of the school.

Members who had attended modern schools strongly deplored the differential advantages offered to grammar school pupils, instancing their better teachers, higher standards and more generous provision, particularly for games.

Though respondents did not mention employers as part of the external social system, they did show an awareness of the status system in education and noted how heads 'used the good name of the school' as part of the sanctions of control. Rules relating to dress, eating in the street and appearance were seen as part of this system.

Heads tend to measure and determine the ethos of the school through the VIth form or the selective fifth: they concentrated on the success of these groups and set the schools' standards by them. In general members recognised that there were low status and high status schools in the schooling system and that low status schools tended to hold less able and less interested teachers whilst large staff turn overs denied pupils direction and purpose in their work.

The Response of the pupils

Resentment against the process of schooling was seen to characteristically involve either 'flight' or 'fight'. The material strongly suggests that many pupils react to the process of schooling by active defiance though this impression is probably enhanced by the method of sampling. Weak teachers were played up, 'defied', 'riled', 'given a hell of a time' and even subjected to physical attack: however there were descriptions of teachers who did not use physical punishments but still maintained a 'strong' image. The alternatives to fighting, equally present in all responses, were variants of flight from the schooling situation. The obvious example, truancing should not be underrated: attendances, especially in large schools are difficult to check on: it would appear that pupils once marked present have fairly good opportunities to avoid subsequent class attendance.

Many pupils express avoidance responses in such terms as 'being bored', 'fed up', 'wanting to get away', 'wanting to forget about it' and 'waiting till I could leave'. Girls indicated that occasionally they used flirtatious advances to students and masters as part of their technique for playing up. A number of young men felt that through their defiance of teachers they had gained strength of character. By 'Standing up for themselves' they had gained self and group esteem.

Not all rebels reached this level of maturity. Young men frequently took to smoking as one way of acting out their defiance, whilst others 'played up' by refusing to wear uniform or choosing a banned hair style.

In summary, the material suggests that a considerable amount of schooling time is spent by some pupils in acting out resentment: equally it is clear that the majority of pupils either internalise their resentment or project it onto out groups, e.g. parents, siblings, the opposite sex and other streams, classes, or schools. A particularly vulnerable group in this respect were the prefects, who effectively drew off a good deal of negative feeling from the staff. Nevertheless virtually all the expressions of satisfaction with schooling came from the staying-on group.

The Self Attitude and Schooling

One of the unavoidable and unlooked for impressions which comes through the second interview material is the members sense of their having now recovered or of being in the process of recovering from the effects of their education.

Many of the respondents made clear that they were now able to be themselves, they were accepted by workmates and friends. Now people took you for yourself, 'just as you are'; in your own right, happy, relaxed and not too serious. Your good and bad habits were both accepted. Thus after leaving school it was possible to be yourself, to be 'just ordinary'. Few members wanted to be 'way out'. Extremes of youth fashion were laughed at; pop stars were either joked about or seen as people 'on the make', who were working harder than average to get more for themselves.

Young people liked to be liked. Many were shy and anxious at school and were often secretly ashamed of their lack of success. Early dating exposed them to real meeting: to the making and breaking of tender relationships. Such first hetero-sexual meetings could often be absorbing even central to one's experience of life notwithstanding the pressure of schooling.

Teachers who knew of such activities would tease and might even try to prevent or suppress such a relationship from being recognised in the school setting.

Parents on the other hand were more helpful. During secondary school they came to 'accept you as you are', and in return members offered them respect and tolerant good will. Respondents accepted the shared rules of home and in the main thought a lot of their parents. In return parents gave them a good deal of independence even to the point of not being too bothered about their social activities. Parents were unable to express themselves about sex education and in the main used oblique references when they wished to exert pressure to conform to public mores. On the whole parents gave young people freedom and in return they expected responsibility, especially in terms of sexual behaviour. Nevertheless, if girls 'got into trouble' or boys 'got a girl in trouble' they knew their parents would support them.

Accepting the picture of oneself presented by the school meant, for most members, seeing that one was 'not very brainy'. Despite this members gave many illustrations to show that they 'were not as dim as the teachers made out'.

In general, school made respondents feel a failure. They were depressed to recall school experiences and had not felt satisfied with themselves on leaving school. This was very much reflected in the tone of the taped responses. For this reason members were glad to have their parents remain away from school, they did not want them to share their shame. Parents who did visit school or supported it by pushing you into doing disliked homework were rare. It was also noted that large schools offered comparatively less opportunity for the personal success of the less able and average child.

Members were conscious that after they had left school they began to grow up. Now 'you had to think for yourself': They had begun to cope with their own problems, to express themselves in class and gradually began to become self controlled, 'smartening yourself up', taking on new responsibilities and responding to the challenge of work.

School had either made members rebellious or conformist and in this it was supported by the attitudes of some adults who were in 'high positions'. Once at work or in society, members had realised this, they had begun to change, to seek responsibility and to take a more critical look at themselves.

Review

We have drawn together our observations on the material of the Youth Club Surveys. We now consider the schooling system described as a psycho-social process.

A. K. Rice has suggested that any enterprise is organised to perform a primary task 'the task it must perform to survive.'³ The schools are such organisations and we have seen in the foregoing a direct reflection of the primary task of adolescent education as interpreted by a large and representative group of young people. It is that teachers define and act on the assumption that the primary task of secondary education is controlling the pupils: that is to say that schooling is primarily designed as a system of social control. We need hardly be surprised by this conclusion. As Park observes 'society is everywhere a control organisation'.⁴ 'All social problems turn out to be problems of social control'.⁵ Teachers themselves acknowledge this in daily practice: the entire network of relationships we have described is seen in some part to reflect an adage which approaches an article of teacher faith 'if you cannot control pupils, you cannot teach them'.

The entry of patients to hospitals offers close parallels with schooling. Patients are classed and after initiation, and are dispersed by a 'fate forming' mechanisms to specific departments. There are the same problems about mobility, activity, and the degree of self care permitted to individuals. Internal transfer may well be

part of the control strategy and is always significant to the staff and the individuals concerned. In the main any necessary manual work within their capabilities is done by the clients under the direction and supervision of the staff. On the reverse side patients in hospitals, like children in school engage their attention on 'figuring out' their relationship to the professionals with other 'inmates'.⁶

This type of organisational situation, basically custodial, has parallels in the prison service, and the armed forces; the locus of authority resides in the staff group and there is in practice little opportunity for non-staff to make collective representations to the management. Such types of organisation are more nearly the social systems which Parsons describes: the social controls applied by their staffs are designed to minimise client deviance and to adjust to the anxieties and inter-personal strains of staff relationships.⁷ This is not to say that the controlled groups do not have within the authority structure of their sub-culture their own systems of control, but what is important is that in authority structures the informal, non-ruled, spontaneous behaviour of the organisational arena takes place within social boundaries which are staff defined.

Another way of looking at the alternatives offered to pupils in the schools' social process is to be found in the work of W. R. Bion. He has shown that in any group situation, participants take up a number of basic assumption roles: namely, flight, fight, pairing or dependency.⁸ The material shows that of the assumptions, pairing, i.e. working together with the teacher is not a central activity of secondary education and that, therefore, class members are generally found to make one of the other basic assumptions i.e. flight, fight or dependency.⁹ In the foregoing discussion we note that former pupils supplied us with many instances of pupils taking up flight or fight roles in relation to the schooling situation. 'Playing up' i.e. deliberately preventing teachers from maintaining their school routines, is seen to be the major fight activity; truancy and absenteeism are equally typical flight responses. Whilst we have no means of quantifying this material in relation to these situations from our groups, the Newsom report's data on truancy

and absenteeism in the third year would suggest that in the fourth year of secondary schooling 'flight' responses could be determining the behaviour of almost 15% of all modern school pupils. Perhaps an equal amount of in school time is given over to pupils playing out and teachers responding to 'fight' situations i.e. to situations of actual or incipient conflict in which the primary task is either maintaining stable relationships with the one third of pupils described in Newsom as 'neither co-operative nor difficult' and to meeting the problem of the 'especially difficult' Robinsons. Webb¹⁰ and Partridge¹¹ certainly give support to this assessment.

It seems useful to note here that these former pupils felt they had no part in the control systems of their schools. It is not being suggested here that social control is in some sense unnecessary or can be avoided: rather we are simply concerned to note that young people felt strongly that they had little genuine responsibility for their own education. Being unable to share learning relationships, they were pushed back into accepting or rejecting an obedient dependency.

The sampling procedure ensured that the majority of our respondents were drawn from schools of at least 600 pupils and many represented schools whose populations exceeded a thousand. This would lead us to expect from Barker and Gump's study (which suggested that a school unit of 150 maximised participant responsibility) that few of these former pupils would have been drawn into sustained, co-operative participation in the school setting. Furthermore research on the social climates of large groups would lead us to expect evidence of considerable negative effect as schools increased in size.¹²

As we have seen, the material supports such hypotheses, active pupil participation is regarded as being minimal and hostility towards the 'management' is openly expressed. These former pupils had felt no power to influence the formal and informal systems of school control, at least prior to the fifth year, unless they were made prefects earlier. In any case, pupil leadership roles in the formal system

were created by and were responsible to, teacher delegation rather than the school 'electorate' even where they were elected to prefectorial roles.

It would seem that the schooling systems of large schools (800+) are fundamentally different from small ones. Their formal systems are characterised by elaborated leadership chains, whose nearest parallels are those of staff and line management in industry: line equals pupil control; staff equals subject teaching. As such chains develop, the locus of authority becomes more heavily senior staff centred, and ipso facto, pupil and class teacher dependency is increased. For this reason there is need to consider what research should be undertaken before it is assumed (with the Young Liberals') that elected schools councils, (which are clearly a step in the right direction) will effectively create the responsibility network which these young people felt they were denied. Pupils were not looking for the institution of a formal democratic procedure to establish student rights; unless these could be brought to bear on the events of the schooling situation, i.e. on teacher attitudes and teaching methods. Schools councils of limited scope could be used by staff in exactly the same way as the young people suggested the perfect/selective fifth system is used i.e. to deflect or seal off the communications between young people and the staffs.

Arising out of the teacher's need for pupil control is the system of selection and allocation. Our material confirms that former pupils were aware of selection both in schools external to their own, i.e. in terms of differential provision facilities, teacher standards and class sizes in relation to the schools they attended, and of selection within the school's social system. Moreover, they were concerned to note the many ways in which streaming was seen to follow the patterns of self fulfilling prophecy: pupils were 'branded' by streaming, the expectations, attitudes and values of staffs were geared to its perpetuation, and differential provision was made in terms of rewards and punishments.

Clearly a system which emphasises obedience

rewards obedience: the selective mechanisms of school are designed to allow for the emergence of a determinate character type. Members reflected this in many responses, particularly in their descriptions of those pupils who stayed on. Such pupils through their wearing of uniform and through the acceptance of teacher standards (and as prefects, sub-teacher roles) were plainly identifying with a model of behaviour which was clearly articulated by their schools.

Royston Lambert writing of the closed society of the public school has noted that it is custodial in the sense that it protects its inmates from outside society. Loyalty to the group is central to its value system and this is supported by identification between staff and senior pupils.

It seems reasonable to suggest that the covert model on which our national system of day schools operate is that of a friary. An immediate qualification needs to be made, namely that at the input stage we are not dealing with volunteers, but conscripts. That apart, it would seem that each entrant is seen as a potential missionary: whilst the final product of the process should be a neutered male person who has completely internalised and totally identified with the process, and is therefore, capable of carrying the complete process or model out of the institution with him. The pupil entrant is seen, and in many subjects is made to feel, as if his or her function was to absorb and digest every aspect of schooling: frequently the design of girl's uniforms indicates the teacher's need to suppress evidence of their femininity.

As in the public school, pupils who clearly identify with the schooling system are also seen to have a special function in relation to the system of control. Not only are they used by members of staff as examples, but as part of their initiating training into the high status system they are also used as part of the system of control: they in effect take up the role of lance corporal or factory supervisor and in that role are used to take up and even to take over the first level of pupil control.

How do young people respond to their

schooling? 'Half our future' may well be satisfied with the system we have described: the upper half that is. Pupils who readily conform to the social pressures of the school, and particularly eldest and only children from cultured middle class, or aspiring working class homes in which the elaborated codes of language are in daily use, can expect the schooling system to fulfil most of their instrumental needs, and at the same time endorse their social status. For them, the academic system is a job placement system: parents, teachers, pupils and industrialists use it in this way at almost every occupational entry point and, therefore, the placement or allocation value of school qualifications has become an all important feature of the school's control system.

But the control function of job placement and, therefore, of social status allocation is more complex than selection by identification. We noted that our friary model is less than adequate in its account of the input stage: put crudely the selection model we have outlined is deficient in that it fails to describe the system's wastage.

Effectively 'half our future' are the waste products of the selective identificatory process. To look at the analogy in terms of identification with the 'good' pupil, they are those pupils who fail to come up to specification, who cannot internalise the mores of the school's social order.

In effect these internal systems of selection, that is the process by which schools give preference to the thinking introvert, produces 'a wastage' which in a purer version of the model would be eliminated as part of the process: e.g. by 'expulsion' or by 'being sent down.' Looked at in this way, the problems of secondary education stem from the fact that the 'wastage' is required to remain in the system.

(We observe that in so far as control systems in individuals are related to digestion and elimination, and that contemporary middle class institutions in our society are particularly prone to emphasise control in relation to elimination there may be a link between the infantile training of teachers and subsequent personality characteristics in which control of the

self and others has a marked emphasis.)

If our exposition is correct to this point, then we are able to clarify the secondary aspect of control which, stemming from the selective model, puts teachers in position of having to use job allocation as a subsidiary method of control.

What happens in effect is that after the internal system of selection has taken place, partly through grading and streaming but as we have seen also through the school's undeclared declaration of a preferred character type, a second control system comes into play to deal with the 'wastage'. At this second level of control teachers have at their disposal the second major sub-system of job placement. The elitist model provides for Clarke's determinate citizen type who can grow beyond the type,¹³ the job placement model provides much more nearly for allocating the remainder of society to their stations and their duties.

It is interesting to note here that in the course of the discussions, former pupils showed they were very much aware, and that their teachers were were very much aware of this second level of control 'They seemed to think we were all going to be 'coal men' or 'dustmen'. In fact this was a major area of pupil dissatisfaction. Nevertheless, social allocation by the schools was accepted: the main bone of contention is the failure of teachers to respond imaginatively to the possibilities and potentialities of the second control system i.e. to use job placement pragmatically. Former pupils stressed this point Not being selected could be accepted. Not being effectively trained for an alternative social role having not been selected, was the real difficulty. In short these former pupils were saying look at the logic of the situation: if we're not scholars, okay: teach us a trade.

The interview data shows that the majority of young people accept (with varying degrees of resentment) the directives of these two interrelated systems of pupil control (the pupil model in terms of standards and values being linked to job placement by streaming and examinations).

Despite this many pupils failed to respond to these

two levels of control, some infrequently since they recognise the implied rewards of success, others unhappily more frequently, since neither sanction is seen to apply to their case.

What have teachers in reserve for such a situation? David Ayerst, a former HMI and adviser to the Robbins and Newsom Committees says of English schools 'sanctions are always there in the background and punishments exist and are used. Corporal punishment is so much part of the folk lore of English education, and so incomprehensible to most other modern countries, such as the United States, that it would be wrong to write a chapter on life at school without mentioning it'.¹⁴

But corporal punishment is not the only way in which English schools administer physical punishment. R. G. Barker's 'Yoredale' experiment¹⁵ presents the only available cross-cultural study. With the reservation that this was a 'one off' study it is noteworthy that in the situation he analysed, English adults were very much more prone than their American counterparts to boss, scold, admonish, smack and shake their pupils or to belittle, disapprove of, or ignore them.

These later forms of punishment are in fact a common place of our educational system. So much are they a part of the classroom situation, that it is easy for teachers to accept them as normality: to persuade themselves that slapping, digging and hair pulling are universal methods of teacher control and are in any case so frequently used in the pupil's homes that their use in school is fully justified.

In the material are many accounts of pupils being 'belted', 'slapped across the face', 'whacked', 'pulled over the desk and walloped' and of teachers 'flying off the handle', and throwing a variety of things, and there are occasional extensive descriptions of incidents which unquestionably deserve the epithet of sadistic. Nor is it the case that the respondents saw these interviews as opportunities to moan about such incidents. On the contrary it is the acceptance of such punishment which is impressive. A girl recalling a man teacher slapping her across the

face observes only that 'they shouldn't allow men teachers to hit girls'; while many boys speak favourably of the hard strict teacher who hits you but remains friendly and good humoured.

This is important. Not all teachers are seen as physically punitive at either the formal or informal levels, but it is plain that there is a category which includes hitters and non-hitters who are strongly resented because they deliberately create a distorted scale of social distance between themselves and their pupils.

The picture which emerges here is of domineering teachers, whether male or female, who accept willingly the inference that compulsory education means a compulsory classroom situation: that they are the administrators of a force state. These are the teachers who 'shout and bawl', 'stand and glare', who make you obey a host of petty rules 'because I say so', who never smile and cannot stand a joke, who despise you, blame you, pick on you, and call you names.

Though these are statements which cannot be readily quantified, not from our data at any rate, they do clearly form the bulk of the responses, whilst positive assessments are rare. Even allowing for exaggeration and the opportunity the interviews may have given for the expression of complaints concealed from both the researchers and the interviewers, it would seem valuable to consider whether the control systems of English schools contribute to building up feelings of resentment and wishes for revenge which may emerge subsequently in vandalism, delinquency, student protest, even aggressive driving and recriminatory practices in adult society. Certainly on the evidence of the taped recorded interviews, it is safe to say there is at least as much violence in the behaviour of some of the adults in these very representative schools as is to be found in modern society in general.

The Self and Schooling. a Sketch of the Social Consequences

A theoretical social model which matches up to this data is available in the work of Mead¹⁶ and Bateson.¹⁷ Their joint study provides the classic description of a schizoid society; Bali in the

1930's. Bateson's more recent work, especially as interpreted by Laing, deals with the communication systems of the schizoid family.¹⁸

In Mead's description of Bali, we may see many parallels with our contemporary society. Of her criteria we may note; the predetermining of adult roles; early childhood indulgence followed by stern adult expectations; the stress on childhood obedience and the suppression of aggression within a context of threatening and teasing. On the social level the schizoid society was characterised by the universality of syncopated rhythm, whilst its major recreative activity was watching violence portrayed on a darkened screen.

At the inter-personal level, Bateson has argued that the schizophrenic personality is formed through sustained learning experience within a schizoid family. He states that 'ego function' is the process of discriminating communications modes within the self and between the self and others. The schizophrenic is regarded as experiencing ego weakness in three communication areas; in comprehending others, in choosing normative forms of utterance, and in internalising normative forms of utterance.

Bateson suggests that the learning context in which the schizoid experience arises has the characteristic of a Zen 'double bind' situation, in which a verbal trap is linked with the threat of physical punishment. Firstly there is a pattern of recurrent threatening; secondly and over and above this the 'victim' of the schizoid trap is repeatedly made aware of the system of prohibitions which entail punishment at a more abstract level, and thirdly the whole pattern of the experience is set within the field of a third negative restriction or prohibition which entails that the victim cannot escape from the punitive field. In the forces this is 'Catch 22', the regulation of the Army Act which covers all possible disciplinary eventualities.

Catch 22 in relation to schooling is the fact of its being compulsory. Bantock, with the sharpest of touches, has drawn attention to the unquestioned acceptance of compulsory education: 'The first thing, I think, to notice and it is something so accepted that it's extraordinary

incidence goes unremarked — is that education is compulsory and is intended to lead to universal literacy'.¹⁹ Our education system is imposed, not sought out; participation in it is a legal requirement no child can escape.

If then within our schools, young people are put in the position of being repeatedly subjected to threatening and teasing and actual punishment and a whole hierarchy of rules, both immediately restrictive and more abstractly moralistic (jeans in the context of the morning assembly) and at the same time are compelled to stay in that situation until they leave school are they not being trained in a schizoid pattern?

The built-in threat situation of our highly competitive schooling system cuts both ways; damaging those who succeed and those who fail. Students who can adjust to and cope with the extended competition for future rewards and status probably tend to internalise feelings of blame and recrimination seen to be characteristic of the English middle class groups. Either way self denial is involved throughout the system; the child must choose to internalise self abnegation to succeed, or as was the case the majority of our respondents, must throw off the schooling process as soon as possible and deny to his self and others the effects it had on him.

Schizophrenia is the characteristic illness of our society: as Laing remarks 'a child born today in the UK stands ten times greater chance of being admitted to a mental hospital than to a University and about one fifth of mental hospital admissions are diagnosed schizophrenic'.²⁰

This is not to say that the rejectees of the system are the most likely candidates for hospitalisation. Researches on the social class origins of schizophrenics show no correlation with class background, though it is clear that the effect of schizophrenic breakdown is to ensure that social class five is heavily over represented by class analysis. What is being suggested is that successful upward mobility and adjustment in our society is adjustment to a schizoid pattern: the successful development of a false self system capable of protecting and defending the real self.

If the strongest need of the individual, is the satisfaction of a realistic self concept: then it would seem that our schools are geared to defeat this aim. Adolescence in our society is characterised by inconsistent treatment in which the child oscillates between the teasing and threatening of school and the love and nurturance of the home,²¹ whilst within the schooling system, the culture's self enhancement for the few, ensures self disparagement for the many.

There are practical ways forward: a consultancy service to provide support for the adults in school: a drastic reduction in school and college size so that the 'therapeutic community' is the experience of youth rather than the necessity of middle age, a reorientation of teacher training on group dynamic lines and the establishment in the curriculum development centres of in-service training in human relations.

There is perhaps no need to stress that the foregoing is based on the reactions of former pupils to their schooling; nothing more. What pupils recall is not the whole of the story, even if everything they said was faithfully remembered. It is very necessary to note, though few pupils and not many teachers recognise it that the compulsory element in state education is related to the class situation in two distinct ways. Pupil attendance is one; the other is the compulsory element in the teacher's choice of his clients. In allocating pupils to schools there is an undeclared social justice requirement of society which ensures that teachers cannot refuse to give a particular child an education, nor must they by implication favour any child, however apt, to the detriment of others in the same class.

Few other professional groups are so constrained in their client relations; again the direct parallel is with those whose work is primarily custodial. In practice schools and teachers must take the section of the child population which is allocated to them, either through the internal system of the school or through the administrative procedures of their local authority. The Enfield case highlights the point: parents and the local authority may argue about which school the pupils may attend, but

school staffs, in their professional roles, have no choice but to accept the catchment area and ability intake decided upon (in the courts if necessary).

It is a matter of speculation as to the extent which this situation helps to intensify the hostile confrontation of teacher and taught. What is important to notice is that, in practice, class teachers are in many respects, put into the same position as the group members. Actual class teaching is the lowest rung of the professional ladder; male teachers at least, must be very competitive to gain professional advancement, all teachers are constrained by socially set notions of professional standards and behaviour and, as pupils have no choice of teacher, so teachers have no choice of particular pupils.

Venturing a final generalisation; perhaps what is most needed is the externalising of teacher-pupil conflict in early adolescence. More open conflict in the pubertal phase, in permissive school settings, might be the most effective way of preventing a whole range of school-leaver and post-school leaving ills. In short we need more trusting, more responsibility giving, more active, noisy and exciting secondary education right from the first years.

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A Comparison of Attitudes and Roles

by I. M. READ

Some years ago I was in charge of a children's home in Leicester. There were twenty three children aged from two and a half to nearly sixteen. On the staff were myself and a young assistant of eighteen. A woman came in daily to do the cleaning. There was no shopping to do as everything was delivered.

The children in the home, apart from my own three, were deprived children committed to care for various reasons, and were in for long-term care. They went to school in Leicester and had their dinners at school. The little ones went to a nursery on the premises. Therefore, during term time, the work was considerably lighter than during the holidays when they were all at home. Six of the children were enuretic. Three of the children, a fifteen year old boy and a boy and girl of thirteen were noted to be very difficult

although we could never understand why. The two youngest, my own little girl of two and a half and Johnny who was five but functioned at about two and a half year level, needed a great deal of supervision. All told, it was an exacting job, hard work and at times fairly exhausting. The accommodation consisted of three dormitories, one large play room and a dining room. There were, in addition, a staff bedroom and a staff sitting room. The home was one of eleven Cottage Homes, so there was a central authority, the superintendent, to appeal to if necessary.

I have never in all my life, either before or since, experienced the happy, care-free relationship which I had with that group of children. They could be left to play outside or inside without constant supervision. In inclement weather when they were all inside there was never pandemonium. I could go into the playroom and talk or have a game or play the piano, and there was no strain or excessive noise to combat. Sometimes the older ones would be in the staff sitting-room knitting or sewing or reading. When each bed-time came round (they went in batches according to age), they all had either a story or the older ones played a game, and then they would go off to bed with no trouble. Bath time was fun for the younger ones and the older ones would help. Sometimes, of course, fights would break out; sometimes they were in trouble outside, but none of their misdemeanours seemed to assume the monstrous proportions they do in school. Discipline was no real problem, and the only punishments were deprivation of sweets or pocket money, or early bed.

The heart-burning question which I have constantly asked myself since I came into teaching is; why have I never been able to capture the happy easy relationship I enjoyed with those children in any class I have ever had? Some of the reasons listed below seem to be obvious, but they are not the whole answer.

1. There was a different relationship. In the home the children called me 'Auntie' and there was an easy, friendly and very close personal relationship. In school, by the very nature of the situation and not being in Loco Parentis, this

relationship is not possible. All the same, I feel very much that a relationship as near as possible to that one should be aimed at.

2. There was no strain of having to teach the children, at least academically. There, the main purpose was to make the children happy and as socially adequate as possible. In the classroom there is a nagging worry that a certain amount of teaching must be done, and that the children have got to learn what we try to teach them, and that when they leave the present class they will be ready for the next one. In the children's home there was no imposition of what we should be doing. We were ignorant of I.Q.s, mental ages, learning situations, potential, motivation and all the knowledge teachers have. The children did what we thought they were capable of in the way of duties, hobbies, games and so on, and so long as they enjoyed what they did and wanted to do it, they could tackle almost anything from gardening to complicated cookery or games. In school, of necessity, work is graded, and there are situations where a child has to do things for which he has no inclination. This, of course, applied to a certain extent in the home. A child made his bed, or set the table regardless of his feelings. But if he didn't do it properly there was no strain or fear a) on the part of the housemother that she had failed, or b) on the part of the child that he had failed or would suffer severe retribution. These are not parallel situations on the face of it, but fundamentally the situation is similar in that an adult has power to impose her will on the child and the child's response is the important factor. The housemother may say, 'Never mind, I'll help you, and maybe tomorrow you will give me a surprise and do it on your own,' Whereas a teacher in response either to inward pressure of conscience, or outward pressure of time and the amount of work to be covered, may not feel so happy about passing over a child's inadequacies or deliberate refusal to co-operate, and tension is built up.

3. The group of children in the home was a family group. They were all ages and, of course, all intellects. This type of grouping, socially any way, seems to be easier to manage. The older ones are more responsible and the younger

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ones get all the help they need. There are fewer jealousies or clashes of temperament which tend to crop up in groups of children the same age. Also with a group of children of different ages a more individualized approach to each child seems to be possible. In school an age range such as this would be impracticable and impossible, but some Infant teachers and those who have taught in rural areas, feel that family grouping or vertical classification is more appropriate to the children's needs, if not the teacher's. The same applies to non-streaming.

4. In the home we were very fortunate in that staff relationship was excellent. There were just the two of us and we worked extremely well together. Everything was shared and, as far as the children were concerned, although I was in charge, we were accepted for what we were and, as far as I can remember, there were never any instances of playing us off against each other. Also, our position was autonomous. There was no fear of the superintendent coming in and criticizing or questioning what we were doing. There were no outside impositions of discipline or timetables and curricula, such as are essential in school, and there were no other staff near enough to criticize what we were doing. In school I find that the opinions of colleagues and the attitudes of heads has a marked effect on my relationship with the children. I know of other teachers who feel the same way. To hear, in the staffroom, disparaging remarks about class-control, untidiness, noise in the corridors, and even more telling, how little the children knew when they moved up from so-and-so's class, sometimes has a salutary effect, but more often a depressing effect in that one knows that it is often exaggerated and biased. I remember one particular teacher who was very easy-going and had a permissive attitude in his classroom. The children acted normally, for children. They were not silent when they went to the Hall for P.E., but they were not over-noisy either. The teacher concerned always gave the impression of laziness and easy-going good humour. Yet work of all kinds done in his room was above the average of the school. All the same, the main complaint about him was his lack of discipline and that the children in his class did not work. I have, at times, gone back to my

classroom after such a conversation in the staffroom and found myself irritated by lack of response, noise and sheer dimness, and this has led to strain and tension, but not, I think, to any improved teaching. The same feeling comes from knowing that the Head is likely to walk in at any minute, and, even if nothing is notably wrong, having a lurking suspicion that there might be, especially if he is a rigid disciplinarian. Happy indeed is the teacher who has the courage of his convictions, a commendable indifference to the niggling criticism of others and a belief in his own abilities. Even if he is living in a fool's paradise professionally, I feel at least his relationship with the children must benefit if it was the right one to start with. Of necessity one must conform to school curriculum and decorum. This is as it should be for the sake of academic success and social training, but unsympathetic attitudes, either real or imagined, of staff and heads, to genuine efforts to use realistic methods or even modified methods, does lead to strained relationships with staff and children alike.

5. The children in care were in for long-term care. A difficult child was tolerated and made the best of because one had him for keeps — among other reasons. How often in school do we hear, 'Thank God I haven't got that child, or that class, again next year!' There is a certain transitory and impermanent relationship in the classroom. This is probably more true of large junior schools than in smaller more intimate rural or special schools. Maybe in ideal situations, with perfect staff relationships an open-plan school could work on similar long-term relationships. Classes would not be so isolated and to some extent insulated from the rest of the school. How many times in school do we visit the children in their new classes, and would the new teacher approve anyway? When the new lists are made up in September, some children in the fourth year are hardly known to their new teacher, even though they have been in the school for three years. This, I suppose, could be taken as one argument for some specialization.

6. Most of the children in care would rather have been in their own homes. They would rather have had their own parents and the freedom of the streets of Leicester than the

comparative restriction of the home. Children in school have their own homes to return to and therefore the fact of whether they accept the teacher or not, is not so vitally important to them as the acceptance of the housemother is to the child in care. To a certain extent I think it is true to say that the Leicester children were institutionalized. They were deprived and maybe more subdued. There was never any great show of affection or warmth of feeling, although they demanded affection and attention from us and we provided creature comforts. Yet surely the normality of children in school should be a point **in favour of** good relationships.

7. Discipline by withholding privileges may have been more effective in the home, as there were more privileges to be withheld, and things like pocket-money and sweets meant a great deal to the children. On the other hand this can be effective in school, especially as children hate to be left out of anything. P.E., painting, or even helping teacher in the dinner hour are valuable 'commodities' to the children. But whereas we rarely had recourse to such measures, discipline in school seems to be much more difficult.

8. One of the most vital differences is the actual accommodation. The situation in the home was far more informal. The large playroom was arranged with two large tables and chairs, arm-chairs, book-shelves and there were rugs on the floor. The children were free to go into the staff sitting-room to read or play quiet games, knit or sew. The furnishings of the room with arm-chairs, carpet and curtains were conducive to quiet, peaceful pastimes. I have often felt what an asset such a room would be in school where children could go and be left alone if they wanted to be. Or would a headmaster come in and demand. 'Why aren't you working boy?'

This brings me to a question I have often asked myself. How far are schools or the school situation divorced from reality or the real-life situation? Children seem to be expected to behave in a unique way, in line with teachers, desks, uniforms, rules and general school atmosphere. When a large group of mature students, all teachers of many years standing, were waiting

outside a lecture hall for a lecture to finish, the noise of conversation was unbelievable. Yet no-one stormed in amongst them roaring, 'Stop talking!' or, 'Why can't you behave like adults and talk quietly!' Where again in life will children find that they must not talk in the corridor, put their hands in their pockets, eat sweets, or where they must be fully occupied all day, with very little let-up, with things they don't particularly want to do. Even when they are at work they can usually talk freely and move about, and on the assembly line at least they know they are going to be paid for what they do!

9. Finally, of course, there is the inescapable problem of large classes in small rooms. In the home at Leicester with twenty-three children, even if they were all in the playroom at once, there was room for the children to follow their own pursuits. Every teacher knows the frustration of hardly having room to move between the desks.

The questions now are; a) whether at Leicester the situation would have been compatible with teaching the children in the accepted sense and b) whether, given a classroom situation with the main advantages of Leicester (such as autonomy, no pressure of achievement for the children, no enforced rules which were not vitally necessary, and informal, comfortable surroundings) the relationship and atmosphere would be as good as those in the home.

To answer the first question, I would say that it would have been possible as a teaching situation if we had been qualified teachers and knew what we were doing. There could have been no formal teaching, but I am sure it would have been possible to teach basic subjects and other subjects incidentally. The pace would have been slow and the children probably would not have been stretched. Certainly, if there had been any pressure the happy, easy feeling would have vanished.

The second question, I think, depends on what the aims of the teacher are. If the teacher is there merely to 'teach' and to be obeyed, then even the most favourable situation cannot bring about the same friendly relations we enjoyed at Leicester. On the other hand, if there

is no pressure from without or within then, even on a short-term yearly basis, I feel the same easy relationship should exist. In school we tend to think that certain behaviour is acceptable and therefore must be enforced. The children are ready for a battle of wits and wills and accept the challenge. If, as at Leicester, their behaviour, within reason, is not all that important, then there is no challenge and nothing to fight against. If a child does not enjoy doing something, or does not want to learn, how important is it that we should insist? Is it not possible that he will come to it later when the pressure is off? On the other hand, is this attitude an easy way out?

The two main pressures then would seem to be, the pressure to teach and the pressure of conformity. There must be some way of overcoming this without loss of efficiency and yet still maintaining an easy and happy relationship with the children. As in all problems, the first place to look for an answer is in oneself. In my own case I feel that this is even more relevant, as in one situation I found my relationship with a group of children entailed no strain, and in another situation considerable strain. My attitudes and role have changed. At Leicester I was untroubled by discipline because I never imagined there could be any problem. Also my role as housemother was the personal one of a mother figure and I was unrivalled to a certain extent. Therefore I never even gave a thought as to whether I was doing the right thing. I was obeying certain instincts and using common sense in contacts with the children. My attitudes to the children were tempered with understanding and tolerance because I knew they were deprived and under-privileged.

In school, discipline is a major problem, either because the children are not as controlled as one would like, or they are not making the progress one would like or feels is expected. There is an element of uncertainty in school as to whether one is doing the right thing, using the right methods or getting across to the children. My role as teacher is completely different. There is no question of my being a mother-figure, and my contact with the children is more impersonal. I am still sympathetic I hope, but I expect more of

them. To a certain extent my attitude is clinical, more like my role as a nurse, but that again was very different because, although it had to be impersonal, it was individual and isolated and almost entirely physical. This clinical attitude in teaching tends to bring strain. If a child is not learning or conforming, when one cannot find a reason, there is a sense of failure.

Not only have my own attitudes changed, but the attitudes of others are also different. More is expected of one as a teacher, and colleagues are more critical. Society as a whole has a very different attitude to teachers than it has to housemothers. There are very few people who even give a thought to housemothers, but teachers are a part of everyone's experience, and therefore the whole concept of 'teacher' is overlaid with countless images, prejudices, preconceived ideas, and conventional ideas. This must affect what we are, either consciously or subconsciously.

The attitudes of the children are different. Their emotional need of me as a teacher is not so great as their need of me as a housemother. Therefore, not having an emotional tie the teacher is fair game for their rebellious and aggressive tendencies. Whether we accept this for what it is or take it as deliberate personal animosity must make a difference to the relationship between us.

Even in the role of teacher, however, we notice different attitudes in children. Outside the classroom they are quite different. On school outings or visits, at camp, or even on the playground, even the most difficult are tractable unless grossly disturbed. There must be something about the classroom situation itself which makes the problem what it is for some teachers. Maybe it is quite simply that some of the children would rather not be there, and their discontent and restlessness spreads to others.

I enjoy teaching and being with the children, and they react favourably on the whole, but I wish very much that there was not the strain and tension which were so happily lacking at Leicester. I think probably in a special school one could attain to a situation much nearer to this, but it is a pity it is not possible more often in the ordinary school.

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EDITORIAL NOTES

This issue is put together during the season of holidays and travel and summer conferences and courses. A time of the intermingling of people and all the clash, comparison, conflict and inspiration that this causes. It is difficult to put together an issue which reflects September/October.

We are glad that circumstances made it necessary to print Fred Roberts article on an Experiment in Counselling at Tulse Hill, in this issue. Certainly October means experiment and fundamental attempts at increasing self-knowledge, and awareness of individuals. Edmund Fulton examines an attempt to educate 'pre-school' disadvantaged youngsters. The experiment got them to work very hard indeed. The article has in it two apt quotations, and it believes in helping the young to find 'the wonder' in life. This, too, is timely. One boy of 19 from a secondary modern school, whom I had left to find his own wonder among books and illustrations, produced a bold mural painting which he admitted was inspired by Blake, and mentioned a book on our shelves with illustrations by Flaman, whom he said 'must have come under the influence of Blake'. When I offered four books including a life of Blake and a Pelican on Bewick, he accepted these two, rejected the others and said 'Interesting that Flaxman was in his circle, I didn't know when I mentioned this to you'.

And so to Hannam on history. He makes us think and assess. The suggestions that Rome seems remote, and modern economics more relevant for history shows a slight between-the-wars reaction against Wells view of history as part of modern conceptions of time. The young accept space travel and atomic physics: they are at home in the immensity of time. Archaeology attracts many voluntary students.

An Experiment in Counselling

Fred H. Roberts

At the Working Party which was convened by the English New Education Fellowship, at the Institute of Education, University of London, from 17th to 18th April one of the sessions was concerned explicitly with 'The Counsellor in Action. Some examples of practice'. This is a report of a two-year experiment which is now nearing completion. It is divided into three sections — 1. The Experiment itself, 2. The basic theoretical position, and 3. Some recommendations regarding counselling generally by one of the discussion groups within the Working Party.

1. The Experiment itself.

It began in this Comprehensive School of 1800 boys in September 1966. The 'counsellor', trained as a counselling psychologist, had been engaged for over ten years previously, mainly in an adult sphere. With the emphasis upon prevention in the Mental Health field he had for some time felt the urgency to be concerned with children in a normal setting, especially with adolescents, when the combination of maturity and motivation are most favourable towards change and adjustment. Employed as a teacher, he was engaged first in a purely teaching role (.5 of a week), but six months later (this was increased to .9) ten additional periods were scheduled for counselling. This was at the request of the Headmaster who himself had been approached on the question of a counselling service by the Head of the Remedial Department. The 'counsellor' was also asked to participate in a General Studies Course for Sixth Forms, and for four periods in the week this is approached as a group discussion on the development of the personality.

Counselling therefore was introduced into the school unobtrusively, with the emphasis upon personal, informal contacts with the staff and the offer of help with the emotional problems of pupils when the teachers themselves requested it. There were two reasons for this approach. First, because in the experience of the 'counsellor', demand for psychological and personal counselling very quickly outstrips available resources without the necessity for any general

publicity. Secondly, one of the reasons for the experiment was to discover the role and purpose of the 'counsellor' in a school setting. This could best be achieved through the goodwill of the teaching staff, which would not be forthcoming if the 'counsellor' was viewed as a threat to their own long standing pastoral, guidance and vocational functions. The 'counsellor' therefore sought to introduce himself in a complementary role and concerned himself specifically with the affective aspect of the pupil's personality.

In the beginning, basic problems of accommodation and the 'counsellor's' teaching commitments made it difficult even to operate the counselling service; but the field experience of the classroom and the equally frustrating difficulties teachers have to surmount, gave a realistic touch to the experimental situation, and the 'counsellor' was not short of sympathetic understanding from the members of the staff common room. He now has a very pleasant room of his own which is shortly to be redecorated through the good offices of the technical department; easy chairs, a carpet and curtains have been provided by members of the staff.

Understandably, initial referrals were generally those with chronic behavioural problems. It was soon mutually agreed however, (though discretion was exercised), that those boys already with established relationships at the Child Guidance Clinics and in the Probation Service would not generally be seen by the 'counsellor' except when requested by these agencies.

The boys are seen both individually and in groups and are withdrawn from their normal classes, with the knowledge of their form tutor, who is considered the focal and crucial point in this preventive work in mental health. There is close liaison generally with the school through a monthly conference with the Heads of Upper and Lower School, the Chairman of the Senior Housemasters and the Head and Deputy Head of the Remedial Department. Recommendations for referral to Child Guidance or psychiatric treatment are passed on to them and they are responsible for making the arrangements through the normal channels. In no sense, is the 'counsellor' therefore taking over any of the functions normally performed by the teaching staff.

The emphasis in the counselling service is upon the relationship with the boy. As a result, it is the form tutor who is primarily concerned with the parents when an interview is indicated, although the counsellor may suggest the kind of approach that might be most fruitful. Sometimes, the counsellor has been present but it is always considered a complementary function, each representing different roles. From experience, parents will too easily manipulate personal meetings with the counsellor to their own advantage and this is soon recognised by a deteriorating relationship with the boy.

We have also been carrying out a group experiment which was initiated in the first place to be of practical help to the classroom teacher, e.g. two or three boys were being particularly disturbing in the class and influencing a few more around. The counsellor attended the teaching period and suggested that perhaps eight of them might like to meet him separately as a group. There were no shortage of volunteers so that an appropriate choice was made. They are very enthusiastic over their attendance and there is no difficulty in presenting emotional problems for general discussion. There is a great group loyalty and cohesion. Members of the staff have remarked on their improved work and personal attitudes.

The whole counselling service is seen as part of the curriculum of a modern educational system. This is reinforced by the existence of a Sixth Form group (which is quite independent of the General Studies course) which meets once a week as a voluntary and unstructured gathering to deepen their understanding not only of their own psycho-dynamics but of interpersonal relationships in general.

During the first year forty-six boys were seen in individual sessions for varying periods and it is estimated that by the end of this experiment another one hundred boys will have been counselled this year. This includes twenty self-referrals. There has been a steady rise in the numbers seen from the Upper School.

2. The basic theoretical position

The development of the emotional aspect of the

personality is through the two fold process of maturation and learning. Emotional maladjustments then come about through the distortion of this affective aspect. To unravel this confusion, it is necessary first to uncover the actual feelings of the individual so that more appropriate adjustments to his problems may be effected. This can be achieved through a personal relationship with a therapeutic personality. How does this come about? Through —

a. **Acceptance** — the counsellor receives the person as he is, without making a judgement on his behaviour or feelings, because this is both irrelevant and detrimental to the therapeutic objective. This relationship develops naturally and spontaneously and becomes a reality to the individual as the counselling sessions progress.

b. **Listening.** — this is a very active, not a passive procedure. We are more concerned with the underlying feelings rather than the manifest content. In the interpretation, verbal, facial and postural clues play an important part.

c. **Responding.** — not casually or haphazardly but with understanding which comes through a combination of sensitivity (a personal quality) and interpretative skill (a technical ability).

d. **Empathy.** — If the counsellor's interpretation of what the person is trying to convey is correct then he 'feels' that we understand him, and the empathic process has begun. This in turn leads to —

e. **Trust.** — by the person being counselled. It makes all the difference to him to find someone who really understands his underlying feelings. He is encouraged therefore to reveal more and more about the actual feelings which have contributed towards the emotional conflict. On the basis of a new found trust here, with the counsellor, this experience can be generalised to other personal relationships, so that the old pattern breaks down under the new learning.

It will be seen from what has already been said, that the pedagogic role of the teacher is quite different from, and should not be confused with, the 'listening' role of the counsellor.

What has been enumerated so far in theory is an

ideal objective not only of counselling ability but of the personality development achieved by the individual at the time of adolescence. By then internal authority should have taken over from imposed external sanctions. The child's development from infancy to adolescence can be illustrated by the figure of a balance, representing the emotional growth and adjustment of the individual from the imposed and necessary discipline of childhood at one end to the progressive freedom of adolescence at the other. The counsellor must at the beginning recognise the relative weights on the balance of dependence-independence due both to age (maturation) and of adjustment (learning) which has been reached by the individual at this specific point in his life. He must provide the appropriate, but temporary, supportive relationship, while at the same time working towards the psychological goal of emotional maturity in adolescence when internal authority has taken over from imposed external sanctions.

3. Some recommendations regarding counselling generally by one of the discussion groups within the Working Party.

The counsellor concerned in writing this report was appointed by one of the three discussion groups of which Mr H. J. F. Taylor, Senior Educational Psychologist, London Borough of Hillingdon was Chairman, to report back their deliberations to the plenary session of the working party.

They were unanimously in agreement with the definition of 'counselling' as concerned primarily with the affective, emotional aspect of the pupil's problem, which was a major objective in itself. The guidance and vocational aspect they felt was an inherent part of the teacher's expertise and there were indications that where the counsellor sought to take over these functions there was natural resentment from the teaching staff.

The counsellor therefore should be well versed in the psycho-dynamics of personality development and because of this could not without considerable loss to his relationship with the pupils combine it with a teaching function which was a different role. He should ideally, though not necessarily, have had experience in the

teaching field, in order not only to be accepted by the teachers themselves but to understand the problems of the classroom. He should therefore be on the staff of the school, having an opportunity of informal contact in the common room and elsewhere, being considered a colleague and not an intruder. This is an essential preliminary in our view of counselling which is concerned with the whole range of interpersonal relationships both in and out of school but focused eventually in the emotional problem of the pupil. It is unrealistic to think that this exists in isolation or that it can be solved by the technical manipulation of any one person. The experience of the counsellor is that when an approach as outlined is adopted the teaching staff do not consider counselling as a threat but welcome this new understanding of pupil problems as stimulating and one which enhances their pastoral role. Indeed a good deal of time should be spent in an informal way with the teaching staff on the interpretation of personal relationships. Now that the punitive approach to discipline problems is on the way out, teachers, particularly at schools where there is a higher incidence of emotional disturbance, will find themselves increasingly involved emotionally with the pupils. With the old system, the administering of physical punishment provided a built-in defence which ensured the emotional detachment of the teacher from his pupil. For the future, the teacher because he is substituting psychological understanding for punitive measures will inevitably be involved emotionally to a greater degree than ever before. This will call for emotional stability in the teacher himself and, for some schools in particular, this closeness with the pupil will demonstrate a real need for the teacher's own conflicts and frustrations to find an acceptable and confidential outlet. If this kind of counselling service is not provided some of the staff will either deny their involvement or escape from it. There is no way of knowing at the present time how many teachers are permanently lost to the profession for this very reason. This service should be viewed as a realistic need of a more modern educational system.

The discussion group felt that this approach should begin in the training college. There must be a realisation by those who train our teachers that

pupil attention and concentration is not just a matter of adequate lesson preparation and interesting material but of personal dynamics as well. Not only is it necessary to gain theoretical knowledge of the psychological development of the personality, which in itself is still lamentably neglected, but still more important is the experiential aspect of participating in groups and gaining understanding of themselves and others through personal interaction in a dynamic setting.

If this were the case, then the newly qualified teachers taking up their first appointments would already be conversant with and sympathetic to the work of the counsellor. In the process of time the counselling approach would be viewed as part of the curriculum and the corporate effort of the whole school. Teachers drawn to this aspect of education could test their vocation to counselling at the beginning of their career.

We all agreed to a proposal that the English New Education Fellowship should take steps without delay to press those in authority from the Minister of Education downwards to recognise the real need to provide an adequate counselling service for all schools and to be thinking now of what constitutes a suitable personality for this work as well as appropriate training and supervision after appointment.

BADMINTON SCHOOL **Westbury-on-Trym, Bristol**

Applications are invited for the post of HEAD-MISTRESS which will become vacant in January or May 1969 following the marriage and subsequent retirement of the present Headmistress. Full particulars from the Clerk to the Governors, Badminton School, Westbury-on-Trym, Bristol.

What we ought to know about our New Entrants

From a Correspondent.

This year, when our new entrants arrived, we asked parents to send in to us a letter, giving us details of the things parents felt we ought to know about their children.

This we felt might prove to be a useful addition to the knowledge we normally acquire from the Primary Schools the children come from. As an assistant I remember vividly how I always felt we never knew enough about the peculiarities of our new intake.

Usually on the first day of term a list of children was circulated which included the names of those whose parents were councillors or governors and of those who for medical reasons were not supposed to receive corporal punishment. In one room the list arrived just after the teacher there had taken strong action against a youngster who would not stop talking and who had been found sticking chewing-gum on the neck of the girl in front of him. The boy's father happened to be the son of the New Assistant Director of Education. At the time the teacher took action he had not a clue who the boy's father was.

As a head I am only too well aware that the Primary Schools do pass on masses of valuable information. One school sent me a file about a young man, now serving 'Time'. The file recorded that the boy had in his Primary School been an exhibitionist and on several occasions had attacked his teachers, on one occasion with a weapon in his hands. He was under the treatment of a psychiatrist who said that on no account was the boy to be hit whatever provocation he gave.

The only teacher that the boy ever obeyed before he left us for another place was an old hand who ignored what the psychiatrist said and given him six of the best.

Another school told me of a brother and sister they passed on to me that the children belonged to

a very strict religious denomination and that under no circumstances whatever were the children to attend school Assemblies and Scripture lessons. They had been allowed to read their Bibles at these times.

We took that head's advice, until we found the youngsters had put brown paper round the covers of two thrillers and written the words 'HOLIE BIBLE' on them. When we found that their religious devotions consisted of reading about the adventures of various supermen, we broke all the rules and set them to work under the guidance of the science teacher to look after the welfare of the tropical fish in the fish tanks, in assembly time and when scripture lessons were in progress. We received no protests about this.

Another head reported of one backward child transferred to my school that his parents had moved house rather than let the boy attend another primary school in the area which did not have as good a record for 11 plus passes as his school did. 'You'll find him as dim as a lamp', commented the head.

His prophecy proved correct. That boy once nearly walked through one of our glass doors without seeing it. He was one of the insensitive types who never seemed to have any warning if he felt sick and who on too many occasions in his first year was sick over his dinner plate. We only cured him of that habit after banning him from eating the rich concoctions his mother allowed him to bring to school to eat at break time.

Another primary school once passed me on a note from a solicitor informing the school that a boy on transfer to my school was to be registered under a different name. The young man's parents had recently got married. Although officially we always called the boy by the name the solicitor said we should, all his mates always knew him by his original surname. If ever there was a wasted letter, that was one. Indeed the first time the register of that class was called, the boy about whom we had received the solicitor's letter, sat silent, when his new surname was called, He informed his form teacher that his surname was the name the solicitor said we must not use.

Another head sent me a note warning me to take no notice of any notes a girl, due to come to our school, produced from her mother, requesting for her to be excluded from physical education on medical grounds. He added: 'Between you and me I wrote to her doctor about these notes to see if there was any reason why she should not do P.E. The chap rang me up to say as far as he was concerned there was no reason why the girl should not do P.E. He said: 'The more P.E. that girl does the better it will be for her, she's a fat lazy b. . . .'. He said he couldn't put it in writing. If you ever find she's missing from class get someone to have a look in the girl's toilets. Whenever she wants to dodge anything, she goes and locks herself in one of the toilets.

One of the heads of a primary school even took the trouble to write and tell us that one of our new intake had false teeth through excessive sweet eating. 'He likes to frighten the girls by taking his teeth out. When he does P.E. he takes them out and often forgets to put them in again. The dentures have spent several nights in my office'.

Another head warned me never to allow another newcomer ever to go on any school trip. 'When we took them to the zoo, he got lost. When we took them to the seaside, he got lost and the coach had to wait half an hour for him. When we took them for a nature walk in the woods, he managed to get lost there.'

Our appeal for additional information from parents was therefore an attempt to augment the information we already had.

The bulk of parents felt there was nothing they felt we needed to know, including the parents of a boy who has to have tablets four times a day and who wandered around like one not knowing where he was, if he did not have these tablets.

One or two went into details over the medical histories of their offspring. A mother wrote: 'As he had rheumatic fever, when he was two, he has to go for a ride on his pony every morning.'

A surprising number of our eleven year olds appear in the eyes of their parents to have weak bladders and fainting fits. A number appear to be highly strung.

None of their Medical Cards, when examined, appear to agree with these comments.

The parent of a boy who has a weak heart both according to his Primary School and to his Medical Card did not think it necessary to tell us that.

We did acquire one or two bits of personal information of doubtful value. One boy's mother wrote: 'I'm sorry he hasn't any trousers. He will have them on Saturday'. That was not as alarming as it sounded. It simply meant that the boy had not got the type of trousers prescribed for the school uniform and that mother was going to provide them.

More unusual was the comment from one mother: 'He was born before I was married. He knows this.'

One mother wrote: 'He has been away at Boarding School. He's not going back, because I need him for the odd jobs. He's quite good at his History'. The name of the boarding school the boy had attended was one for very backward boys.

A father apologised for his son's bad English. 'You'll find he's not bad at other subjects. The trouble is we always talk Polish at home.' Father has spent all his life in these parts. Investigation showed that mother was Polish.

One girl's father thought it was wise to let us know we had collected a tomboy.

He bluntly told us that she had always been more interested in boys hobbies than in girls' hobbies. He wrote: 'She is and always has been very interested in Woodwork and Mechanics. She is very useful, when I am repairing the car.'

One father wrote: 'We wanted our son to go to the Grammar School. We did not want him to come to your school. We want you to put him in your highest class and recommend him for transfer to the Grammar School as soon as you can. We hope that coming to your school won't dishearten him too much.'

A mother wrote: 'We are delighted that our daughter did well enough in the eleven plus to come to your school. We think it will do her good.'

One mother wrote: 'My daughter is far too bossy and wants sitting on hard. Otherwise she'll be getting her own way with you — just as she does from her father.'

Strangest of all the bits of information we got was from the father who did not want his daughter undressed too much for P.E. He added that his daughter did not eat a lot and he hoped that we should be able to coax her into eating more.

Like every school at the beginning of the Autumn Term we have collected a mixed bag of newcomers including one boy who does not know his address. His tale is 'We moved into a caravan last week and we don't know its number.'

What's wrong with History?

Charles L. Hannam. Lecturer in Education.
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There is a particularly unpleasant parlour game: several people pretended they are in a balloon, the balloon is likely to go down into the sea and each member in the balloon basket must justify his right to stay in or else he goes overboard. The way I see it, Classics are already in the water, the Historians are hanging over the side and several unsympathetic boots are stepping on their fingers! What has led to such a desperate state and can anything be done? History, a relatively new subject, started with such bright hopes; if all children knew about the history of their country they would love it all the more, if they knew about other nations they would understand them the better and wars would never happen again. Stop teaching about wars and nations would become peaceful. Two great wars and the growth rather than the abatement of racial and national prejudice have shattered such high hopes. Instead we have witnessed the institutionalisation of great hopes; a lifeless reiteration of events that seem to me to have made history teachers the unpaid agents of the conservative party, purveyors of king worship

and national chauvinism. In all the heartsearching that is accompanying the present economic crisis no one has thought of the part played by the history teaching we have inflicted on the young. How can they come to terms with the present problems if either they are not aware of them, or, perhaps worse, have been taught effectively to worship the past and to distrust the present. As an academic discipline history has great virtues: it may teach judgement, evaluation of evidence, sympathy for other civilisations and an understanding of human motives. As the Classicists would claim for themselves, all other disciplines can be subordinated and profitably employed in the study of the subject. Assuming all these values can be taken for granted, what has happened in our schools? Graduates are full of enthusiasm and concern to pass on what they have gained from their university course to school children. What is so very important is that their intervening process of mental maturation, increasing scope of vocabulary and widening experience are taken for granted or telescoped into a much shorter time than they expect their pupils to take. When talking to students who are about to take a year of professional training, interesting patterns of their education as historians emerge. Often they liked history in a romantic way as children before they came to a secondary school; then they rapidly became bored and even came to detest the subject if they took it for 'O' level; and then in the sixth form, if they were lucky, there was a re-awakening of interest and appreciation. That is, if they were taught by someone not just content to dictate notes. These are highly motivated people with enthusiasm for their subject, who have profited from its study, even at the lowest level, if it only gave them a degree and the right to go on teaching what they had learnt. By the way, there is conflict of evidence here. If I ask groups of teachers if they dictate notes to the exclusion of everything else no one would either admit this or would even advocate this method. If I ask students and children another picture emerges and a very hearty loathing of such methods is expressed. There are no villains in the story; it is true that no teacher could hold forth in an inspired manner for seven or eight lessons a day — we can all be Ranke, Toynbee and A.J.P. Taylor rolled into one once a week perhaps, but energy runs out and in any case it is doubtful whether our pupils would be better off if taught

by 'inspirational ranting'. The decline of the popularity of the subject may well be due to excessive intellectual demands by teachers of the subject on the one hand, and the inability of the children to understand the point of the whole exercise on the other. It would be bad enough if this was the only problem but there is also the question of justifying the existence of the subject, in the school syllabus. Teachers must be ever mindful of Sir Eric James' 'law' that if you want to put something new into the time-table, something else must go out. The pressures on history will come from a number of directions: the experience of other teachers, the disinclination of children to opt for the subject, lack of success in public examinations or just the honest intellectual doubts of the history specialist who is unable to make a first class case for his discipline. It is no use any more to teach history 'because it is there' or to claim virtues for it that cannot be substantiated. Classics almost disappeared from the curriculum although it claimed to be able to do so much for civilisation and the souls of men and historians ought to leave these sort of claims alone and re-think their position.

Although there must be many local variations, by and large the history syllabus of the average secondary school runs on the following lines: the Stone Age to the Roman Empire in the first year; perhaps something on Roman Britain, the decline of the Roman Empire, in the second year Saxon and Norman England, then a romantic romp through the middle ages, laying much stress on monasteries and the feudal system, an account of the Crusades from the Christian point of view. By the third year it is Tudor and Stuart time; perhaps a brief mention of the voyages of Columbus and a quick glimpse of the glorious Renaissance; if all goes well and not too many lessons have been taken up with extra hymn practice the year ends with the Restoration. Fourth Year: eighteenth century, conquest of Empire, defeat of France; and safely home with Industrial Revolution, Reform and 19th century diplomacy in the 5th year. The variables are increasing: local history, something of world history but mainly the U.S.A. and if a teacher is particularly enterprising, part of the time is used for more detailed study of the USSR or China, sometimes even contemporary events up to Hitler or the death of Stalin. Far too often these exciting excursions are not made easy and rest on

almost eccentric enthusiasm.

What are the assumptions behind the structure of the average history syllabus? Mainly there are no assumptions, it just goes on without questioning. When a particular head of department takes over, his hands are tied by decisions taken perhaps two or three generations of teachers before him. Text books exist and are hard to replace. While it is good 'gamesmanship' to decry the work of one's predecessor when beginning a new post it is not easy to undo his decisions. Whatever is included in the syllabus can be justified — children must know about Athens because democracy began there and after all, we live in a democracy now (even if decisions in school rarely rest on communal consultation — and democratic school councils are rare indeed) — the Romans, well they had an Empire and so did we. The middle ages saw the flowering of Christian civilisation and we would like our children to live in one too. It has been put to me that no child should grow up without knowing the rules of the Franciscan order. Equally passionate cases have been made for Bushell's Case and the Dred Scott Decision! In most instances what is actually said is 'I know an awful lot about, say, the Dred Scott Case; it has helped my understanding and appreciation and so I must pass it on to the children I teach.' Whatever we decide to teach we are bound to discriminate and select and the assumption too often is that history is a pound of butter that must be spread evenly over a given surface. Selection there must be, but the assumptions behind some of the selection that takes place must be questioned — why the crusades only from a Christian point of view? why only mention America when discovered by Europeans? why Africa only when the white man brings either slavery or Schweitzerlike charity? — in how many schools is anything taught about the Kingdom of Benin?

As trade follows the flag, history teaching may follow university courses and the growing liberalisation of courses may bring a less chauvinistic approach. The time must come when foreigners are not solely mentioned except when defeated and outwitted by the British. The Historical Assn. has done valuable work¹ on national prejudice and so has the commission on Anglo-American misunderstandings.² These first efforts

may wipe out obvious and unpleasant bias; the unconscious prejudice still needs to be laid bare and analysed. Children are amazed when they are told that the queen has only limited constitutional powers because they have had the 'pageant' of history laid out before them in terms of the life span of the ruler, and more time is spent on the actions of kings, queens and the 'upper classes' than on any other section of the community.

English schoolchildren will know very little about Indian civilisation except in terms of the Black Hole of Calcutta and the Mutiny; not much is learnt about Asoka or the Amritsar massacre. The England many of our schoolchildren learn about is the England of the Coronation not the England of the Abdication, the England where technology stops after the spinning jenny and no one has any idea of the importance of plastics or the impact of the mass media. The new history teachers must rethink their role in education if they are to play a vital part in the curriculum. I doubt whether a school that is rethinking its purpose and its aims has time for irrational ancestor worship, continued belief in the divine right of kings and the reinforcing of existing race and nationalistic prejudice.

Much that is criticised here is blamed on the pressures of public examinations, and there is no doubt that the work done for 'O' level has speeded up the reaction against the subject among children who are prepared for it and those who wish to revitalise the teaching of history. The 'O' level grind in many secondary schools has to be seen to be believed. Not that it is easy to observe because teachers guard their examination groups jealously and even students in their year of postgraduate training are rarely allowed to teach these children. Even medical students are in the end allowed to practice on live patients, but rarely our students. The reason given when access to 'O' level groups is refused are interesting and illustrate the malaise — 'we don't want to confuse the candidates with new ideas', 'the student will get it all wrong', 'they are used to one teacher and might become anxious with anyone new' or more bluntly 'I don't want any students messing around with my 'O' level group'. There are exceptions to this extreme approach but all teachers share these feelings to some extent; even the more secure in themselves have a sense of unease when anyone else touches this precious

group. Another piece of untested assumption is the mock examination that takes up much time and causes a great deal of extra work; their justification: — the children must learn what it is like to sit in an examination — or we must know whom we can safely put in for the examination. It would not be difficult to test these assumptions: one group to be put through mock 'O' level, the other group not and see if results differ significantly. Such bold testing will not even be considered at some secondary schools with 'high standards'. Such obscurantism and irrational response to what is essentially meant to be an 'objective' situation makes me wonder whether deeper emotions are not at play here. Has 'O' level become the 20th century rite de passage — an induction of a group of adolescents to the adult world? Here we have groups of young carefully secluded in the care of an important adult who instructs them in the ritual transactions of the tribe. As I have said above, much of the history taught has a tribal flavour about it. Are these lessons like the boasting sessions at Walhalla, a great recounting of victories with ritual undertones? The sequence of words must be right: name the clauses of the treaty of Unkiar Skelessi — full marks will be given if all the facts are right and it is enumerated in the prescribed form. In many rituals the words must come out in the right order for instance the Anglo Saxon oath, only acceptable in court if the swearer made no mistake. Or the Barmitzwah ritual in Jewish communities. I had to read a passage out of the Old Testament and the greatest importance was attached to correctness. I knew no Hebrew and did not understand what the given passage was about but learnt it all by heart and was then accepted as an adult into the community. Let us then see 'O' level in a new perspective and if it has become more of a ritual than an attempt at the assessment of work, and not even an objective one at that, let us devise new examinations or assessment situations.³ The pressures on the history specialist are considerable. His status and prestige largely depend on the type of form he teaches. Like the teacher in Jackson's book⁴ who felt demoted when asked to take the 'B' stream, the specialist who no longer takes a top CSE or 'O' level stream for an examination feels demoted and humiliated. Similarly headmasters can use examination results as a threat and a diagnostic test of whether a teacher is worth his hire. Good

results must be the result of good teaching, bad results of slackness and ignorance. Perhaps it would be more useful educationally if *teachers* had an annual examination. The same amount of worry and anxiety would result and the children at any rate would not be harmed quite so much. The damage done at the 'O' level stage rebounds, of the 45 to 48% who fail (whatever failure means here) some rise to positions of importance and influence even in education and they remember the failure at 'O' level and not the glories of the victory over the Armada!

While argument goes on about what should or should not be in the syllabus another important area has been neglected in the past: what do children actually understand of history teaching? In the field of mathematics and at the level of primary education much careful research has gone into the problem of concept formation but in the field of history teaching in secondary schools, such awareness is only growing very gradually. Teachers are aware that some children are brighter than others, or perhaps it may be that some children are better able to 'hedge their bets'⁵ namely give the answers they know teacher wants, or else have such good memories that they can repeat accurately without actual understanding. Geoffrey Williams⁶ quotes the example of the boy who wrote 'Wolsey wanted to shoot the pope' when asked to explain what he meant or how he had got hold of such an idea he showed a line in his text book which read 'Wolsey aimed at the Papacy'. This is the sort of howler that keeps the staff-room in stitches during examination marking time. In fact it is symptomatic of an underlying problem that must be diagnosed and explained clearly. Principally the work of Piaget⁷ has shown us that children learn in stages; at one stage they are ready to assimilate new ideas which at an earlier point they found quite incomprehensible. This spreads from ideas of morality to the concept of numbers and time. In this field important work has been done by Dr. Coltham⁸ who found that children in Junior Schools could not understand such abstract ideas as ruler or subject although she found that these words were frequently used in lessons. All history is based on a time scale and yet it is very doubtful whether children even at the age of ten or eleven can distinguish between events that happened before they were born or a hundred years ago.⁹

Careful analysis of the context of the lessons that take place will reveal that all the time concepts are used operationally but the teacher does not really know whether the children have understood what he meant. 'Ruler' may evoke an instrument for measuring in a ten year old. A thirteen year old may know all about power in relation to his younger brother but may find it impossible to understand what is meant if he reads that France was a powerful ally. If the teacher is lucky, children may ask what certain words mean but more likely classes know that all that is needed to keep teacher happy is to nod sagely, or better still, just keep quiet. I have tried to make intelligent thirteen year olds understand the motives of Sir Thomas Moore. They were incredulous that anyone in such a 'smashing' job as chancellor of England should give it all up for a mere principle; that men went to their death because of their beliefs they found even harder to accept. Like Piaget's rules of the marble game, these boys just had not reached the point when they could cope with the idea that someone might be governed by motives different from their own. The concept of time also presents great difficulties: children less than eleven years old could not differentiate between someone who died fifty or a hundred years ago. Although they had heard about Caesar, St. Francis and Napoleon they were not able to arrange their cards in an order of time.¹⁰ A sense of time sequence comes to us gradually. No doubt as the range of our own experience extends we are able to place other events in relation to our own experience. I doubt whether this sense of time and space is the result of history teaching but an awful lot of the teaching becomes nonsense if we assume that it exists and arrange our syllabus on a progressive time scale so that children learn about history. One thing is certain: as the result of the work of psychologists, we must think again before we assume that children in secondary schools are ready for complicated sequences of events, or the fact that events they learn about at different times are in fact interconnected. I remember the surprise of some sixth formers when they realised that the reign of Henry VIII and the Italian Renaissance were happening at the same time. Just because lessons on the Reform Bills follow lessons on the Industrial Revolution does not mean that our pupils will connect the events together anymore than they will necessarily understand that the struggle against dictatorship

in the thirties has meaning and relevance to their lives.

Most History teaching is done in two or three lessons a week until the 'O' level stage is reached. As time is short and teachers try conscientiously to 'cover the syllabus' as if it were a sacred tablet that had come down from the top of the mountain and had to be obeyed at all cost, most teaching is addressed to large groups of children. The 'lecture' in class followed by questioning and testing is probably the most frequent method employed. If the class is highly motivated and selected the children are prepared to put up with lecturing and will usually leave the asking of questions to a few. What they consider the real work i.e. preparing for tests or examinations is done at some other time. There is a sort of collusion between teacher and taught. The children will keep quiet and let the teacher get on with his lesson if he in turn conforms to their norms and does not worry them unduly, sets the amounts of homework they consider reasonable and can offer them the incentive of good marks, praise or even eventual examination success. This routine, if not disturbed by unruly elements in the form, is satisfying to the teacher. He covers the ground, his classes do not make too much noise¹² and his very exhaustion at the end of the day is the proof of his effectiveness. The only trouble with this method is that the children become dependent on the teacher for their information and they learn precious little. It is devastating if one reflects on how little children (or for that matter we ourselves) remember of the lessons we have been taught. When discussing the syllabus among ourselves each subject has relevance to the 'scheme of things': we teach about Henry VIII because we want our children to appreciate the importance of constitutional government or the nature of marriage, the effects of venereal disease and so on? The intention may be splendid but what is retained is a confused and garbled version or else a scheme of things retained just long enough until asked for in the end of term examination. That event tends to seal off the experience. The children feel that they have 'done' the Civil War and that is that. All of us have met the indignant response in class when the children tell us that they have already worked on a given topic and really feel it an indignity to do it again. The alternative to the complete class lesson is group

work, commonplace in Junior Schools but still treated with great suspicion in the more formal secondary school. Again the psychologists have supplied us with a great deal of experimental and practical information¹³ but it has not penetrated down to secondary school level. The rejection of psychology is understandable because so often there is jargon and impracticable experiment but there is also so much that is useful and we ought to take it up when re-thinking our approach to History. Streaming may well be on the way out; more and more evidence is amassing that it is the self-fulfilling prophecy coming true.¹⁴ Treat children like fools and they behave like fools; treat them like responsible people and they may well respond. If streaming is increasingly abolished alternative methods of teaching must be considered. If the Historians claim that their subject is only for the intelligent and that they cannot possibly consider teaching groups of mixed ability they are forging another nail for their own coffin. It is certainly true that children of mixed ability can tolerate the lesson consisting of lecture and notes even less than the top academic forms, although I have already expressed grave doubts whether we are as effective with them as we think. Nothing can solve all the problems but I suspect that group work could relieve much of the pressure that has been building up. Advice and help has been given on the methodological side and on the psychological side. It seems odd that the methodology ignores work done on group dynamics.¹⁵ It must be the old conviction that nothing in this field can help the practical teacher. If the class sit in long rows, in heavy metal desks, addressed by the teacher who may well be enveloped in a black gown raised above the level of the children by a platform, I daresay that group feelings will not be too evident except quite often in a negative way. Let the class split up into groups, where whenever possible they have chosen whom they want to work with, where the teacher takes up a new role and becomes a facilitator and tutor rather than an instructor, and the atmosphere seems to change remarkably. There is often what a colleague once called 'the purposeful hum of industry'. Children consult books on their own, ask each other for advice, and there seems to be much less fooling around and tension between teacher and the children. I doubt whether one teacher on his own could introduce group work effectively. He too needs the support of his colleagues and the

The dynamic of the group does not exist at child level alone. Teachers must learn to work together and the concept of the class-room as an isolated unit that no one may enter at their peril is out-of-date. Historically teachers have needed to be on their own and the enclosed class room was a privilege that had to be fought for. Now the institution has in part lost its useful purpose. If colleagues come into our classroom we stop teaching until they leave. Only students and teachers on probation may be observed. Yet we can all learn from one another in the same way that the children do when they can work together. Heads of departments all too often think that their role does not include consultation and collaboration with their colleagues. At conferences where I have made this point members of staff admit that the only time they saw the head of the department was when they were appointed. They had a syllabus pressed into their hand and then never met again until the staff christmas party. Is it to be wondered that young and inexperienced teachers set themselves unrealistic work tasks and invent phantastic authorities who they think check up on them when in fact they could limit the boundaries of their teaching task more realistically by discussion.¹⁷ The barriers between subjects are gradually coming down and much can already be done within a subject department. One of the most exciting aspects of team teaching is that it will bring colleagues together in consultation. When either staff or children work together in small groups they will find that some pressures disappear; excessive competition can be wasteful and discouraging. A group of children that has in it a range of ability may well find that the less able children will be carried along and encouraged by the able. More time can be concentrated into blocked periods and children will be able to complete tasks instead of having to respond like Pavlovian dogs to 40 minute stimuli, after which they are expected to drop everything and suddenly be interested in another subject. In fact one of the criticisms of project work has been that children become too interested and neglect other subjects — they spend too much of their own time on their projects and even waste some in the library looking for more material. One could hardly hope for a better testimonial! In the same way I was staggered to find that I had to

announce the end of the lesson to boys engaged on project work an interesting contrast to the usual stampede at the end of the lesson.

Project work is not going to solve all the problems facing history teachers. There may be an element of the 'Hawthorn Effect'¹⁸ obscuring the true effectiveness of experiments undertaken. The workers at the Hawthorn factory in the suburbs of Chicago increased production whether their working conditions were improved or became worse. The only constant factor seems to have been that someone was taking an interest in them and that something new was happening. Children suddenly introduced to new areas of history may become interested and keen because they feel that the teacher wants to make things interesting for them.

A difficulty for teachers of history is that they are so desperately short of 'hardware,' namely projectors, screens, tape recorders, television sets, decent storage facilities and of course books. Geographers have enjoyed these facilities for a long time; a school without a geography room is almost unthinkable but history rooms are few and far between. Perhaps the history room as the Association of Assistant Masters handbook advocates is already out-of-date. Team teaching and groups of subjects working together in common areas already exist but it is hopeless to wait for the vast technological improvements of the future when much could already be done with fairly unsophisticated equipment. The children we teach have grown accustomed to a very high standard of visual presentation. However talented, few teams of teachers could compete with some of the BBC television programmes. But we have to try. With the coming of cheaper video tapes these may one day become important lead lessons but at present rigidities in many secondary school time-tables make such brilliant presentations almost beside the point. Here is a depressing example when educational principles must make way to administrative convenience. Helpful timetablers may be rare but too often they are so overwhelmed by the task that they cannot make easy adjustments. Few historians seem ready to use television or radio programmes but more would do so, they say, if only timetables could be adjusted. Here is one answer for the overworked teacher who tries to teach every lesson of the day and whose only rewards seem to

be a sore throat and restless classes. My students who practice in a variety of schools rarely find it easy to use slides or strips. All teachers agree that they are 'a good thing' but not easy to use. I can't blame anyone for not using all sorts of aids to teaching if they cause too much trouble and inconvenience. It may only be a matter of the wrong plug but one has not got either time or energy to chase after it late in the afternoon. In other words the teaching of history has been undercapitalised. Lack of money would not be accepted in some subjects; what biologist would take a post in a school where the only equipment was a jam jar? Partly because of the background of their own education, partly because of a lack of conviction teachers have not made their demands heard sufficiently widely. It is no use advocating project work if there are no form libraries, inadequate supplies of note paper or pictures. It is no use advocating team teaching if the follow-up merely becomes another period of lecture and exposition, if there are no materials to be distributed and no individual text-books. Sets of books and a good library that can supply books for further study are needed. Another possible aid may be teaching kits:²¹ supplies of books, films, slides and tapes, work cards and instructions to cover certain topics. These sets could be used in a number of ways but the important point would be that they have been prepared by experts who respect the vital part the teacher still has to play. He will be given much wider scope, will no longer have to rely on tedious teaching methods and will be able to supply material to children who possess a wide range of ability. Lesson preparation is important but so is the intellectual development of teachers. I would prefer that they kept up-to-date on their history rather than spent an evening rolling out maps or cutting out pictures for the wall display. In any case not all teachers of history are specialists. In a recent enquiry in the Bristol area we²² found that about one third of teachers teaching history were not historians at all. History teaching may not be a mystery confined to a few specialists but it is more likely that retrograde teaching methods will be used by non-specialist teachers under pressure in a subject about which they have more enthusiasm than information. A specialist may still take time to prepare a worth while special scheme, but the other non-specialists are more likely to stick to the syllabus rigidly and plod through it as if the

welfare of mankind depended on that. History is an intensely literary subject. We have learnt about it through reading and essay writing. The essay is the high point of the tutorial session, it has stood us in good stead and we believe that if only a man could write a good essay, he will emerge purged and clear of mind. All this may be true with reasonably able and literate people but we are becoming more and more aware that others also are worthy of education. History teachers must not abdicate from teaching the less able and those who can express themselves lucidly in the essay form. David Holbrook has shown²³ how much creative ability is frustrated because written work that is not presented in the 'proper Form' is not acceptable. Bad spelling, bad grammar and poor sentence construction are often a handicap to success and will put off children who might otherwise enjoy their history. Some CSE examinations are trying to overcome these barriers by encouraging imaginative and creative work, tape recordings and photographs rather than the 'essay'. Oral work is not terribly common in the less inspired history class. Question and answer or long diatribes, sometimes genuine argument but always underneath the sneaking feeling that we must 'get on with the syllabus' and we cannot spend time on mere argument. Much recent interesting work²⁴ has shown how the ability to express oneself verbally varies according to social class and home background. Children from middle class homes will find it easier to ask questions and to accept rational explanations than children with working class backgrounds, particularly if the family is large. What is a commonplace to the sociologist has not yet been incorporated into the work of the history specialist. It is not just a question of understanding how far children can understand the concepts we put before them, we cannot assume that they can express their ideas verbally. Often children will contract out of the lesson and just sit there silently; in a way this suits everyone, teacher can get on with his lesson, headmaster who is inclined to evaluate staff competence by decibels emerging from the classroom, will all be pleased. I find that the silent children are more of a problem than the noisy ones; students are often completely defeated by rows of silent children who have discovered that no reply will usually elicit a lecturette from their teacher who cannot bear silence for long. The result is that children will go through their

secondary education, able to write a reasonable essay but incapable of explaining something without the greatest difficulty. As long as classes are large, talk is difficult to control and encourage, small group divisions should make it feasible. Verbal history should not be despised either — children who have gone out and have come back with tape recorded memories from older people, imaginative use of the tape recorder may well open up a new and positive approach.

To sum up: teachers of history have often great enthusiasm and love for their subject. They are dominated by their own school and university experience where they themselves have enjoyed a measure of success. When faced with the problem of teaching children they have gone on with the methods that suited them. Too often the needs of the child who is not as enthusiastic about history or who lacks the abilities demanded has been neglected. There are more of these children than the ones who are 'good at history' if their needs are neglected the right of history to a place in the curriculum will be questioned. Biology, Mathematics and Classics have attracted money and grants to study the curriculum and to develop new methods. Less of this has happened in history; this may be due to a crisis of confidence or just smugness. Certainly I have met this when talking to groups of practising teachers when my Cassandra like remarks have been met with scepticism but evidence on the other side is building up — new schools which have dropped the subject or have incorporated it in other groups. What is to be done? In the first place the work done in psychology and sociology must no longer be dismissed as useless and new methods must be tried. Rigid classroom teaching will no longer be tolerated by children who can see in other subjects that better approaches are possible. If the heuristic method is possible in Chemistry why not in history.

Testing and examining must be reconsidered; if we must test and examine we must ask why? What are our objectives are they diagnostic, remedial or just a check on teacher efficiency? The material we teach must come under similar scrutiny? must we use the conventional time scale with children who have no sense of time; must we go on teaching topics that have no relevance to the lives of our pupils or contain concepts which they cannot cope with at a given age. In return for this type of rethinking teachers must

receive help — new books, decent equipment and technical help so that time is not wasted on trivialities. No hospital asks its doctors to roll bandages, should history teachers have to spend time on rolling out maps, copying stencils and chasing lost books?

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A Child's Questions Answered

Maud Kennedy

Regency Press: 12s. 6d.

Maud Kennedy offers help to parents and teachers anxious to answer such questions as: Where did I come from? What is God? Do animals have souls? in terms that bypass church dogma and do justice to both science and religion. Her approach is monistic and includes belief in reincarnation astral bodies and spirit guides. She has plainly found much help in eastern mysticism. Those who cannot accept her presuppositions may nevertheless make use of some of the stories ranging from St Francis and Mohammed to Indian sadhus, that form the second part of the book.

P. Cousins.

Teaching Disadvantaged Children in the Preschool¹

(The work of Bereiter and Engelman)

Published by Prentice-Hall, 1966

By Edmund Fulton

Victor Hugo once remarked 'There is nothing more powerful than the idea whose time has come.' The idea of narrowing the gap in cultural inequalities, of giving the poor, the disadvantaged, better educational opportunities has reached maturity; its time has come capturing the imagination and touching the hearts of the ordinary folk in the United States.

The psychological and social handicaps of the disadvantaged children are largely due to the fact that the lower class children come to school poorly prepared for it in terms of perceptual and linguistic development. When these children enter school they have as many problems in understanding what it is all about and why they are there as the school staff have in relating traditional curriculum and learning techniques to the children.

The children find themselves in situations where they are exposed to assumptions about them which are derived from experiences with middle-class children; the disadvantaged children have few success experiences and much failure and generalised frustration, and this is the beginning of the process of alienation which results in adolescent apathy and disgruntled attitude to the school and the society at large. Such children develop a negative self-image and a low evaluation of their all-round competence. As schools are basically achievement-orientated it becomes gradually more difficult for such pupils to develop compensatory mechanisms, to respond to specially-designed programmes, or to make the psychological readjustments which are needed to overcome the cumulative effects of their early handicaps.

The work of Bereiter and Engelman represents a radical and probably the most successful of the existing pre-school programmes. The work is conducted at the University of Illinois and it aims at training the disadvantaged children to use

language in ways that make learning and thinking easier; it recognises that by the age of three or four years disadvantaged children are already seriously behind other children in the development of aptitudes necessary for success in school. The authors assume that it would be practically impossible to make up every environmental disadvantage that slum children have experienced. Therefore, they point out, it is necessary for the teachers to concentrate their efforts in the pre-schools only on those aspects which are most crucial to the children's progress at school i.e. those which are concerned with the use of language as a tool of thought. Consequently their programme consists of drilling into the children certain language habits.

Children of low socio-economic status are much less likely than middle-class children to talk to themselves as an aid to thinking. They perform especially poorly on ostensibly non-verbal tests and learning tasks which nevertheless require private verbal mediation (talking or explaining to themselves). According to Bereiter and Engelman the language deficiencies of disadvantaged children consist not in deficiencies in vocabulary and grammar as such but of failure to master certain uses of language because to such children language seems to be an aspect of social behaviour which is not of vital importance. The disadvantaged children master a language that is adequate for social relationships and for meeting their social and material needs but they do not learn how to use language for obtaining and transmitting information, for monitoring their own behaviour, and for carrying on verbal reasoning. In other words, they do not use language as an instrument which largely helps them to know, perceive, and conceive. Often they treat sentences as 'giant words' that is they fuse separate words into indivisible wholes and this leads to an inflexible kind of language, often they fail to master the use of structural words and inflections which are necessary to express and manipulate logical relationships. Thus the problem for culturally deprived children is not so much learning to speak in sentences as learning to speak in sentences that are composed of separate and distinct words. In the authors' view the disadvantaged children's problems are not emotional or social but intellectual or cognitive.

They argue that such children must learn at a superior rate in order to compete successfully with middle-class children.

In the programme outlined by Bereiter and Engelmann children approach by easy steps the simplest mathematical or algebraic concepts, practise language, work on letters etc, by means of an intensely physical kind of teaching involving rhythmic movements, clapping of hands, cheers, and lots of concrete examples. The chants serve to remind children how to proceed, attack problems, think. They are being constantly encouraged by the teacher who points out that the problems are tough and worth mastering. And in this way children are drilled for two hours a day, twenty minutes each for language, letters, and arithmetic with interruptions for juice, drawing, writing, singing, and outdoor activities.

The preschool consists of three (or four) rooms: a language room, an arithmetic room, a reading room, each with five chairs for five children, and a 'home room' for unstructured activities. The rooms contain only one toy per child so as to lead him to the grasp of one concept at a time.

The authors suggest certain basic teaching strategies. For example: teacher should work at different levels of difficulty at different times, then the teacher should adhere to a rigid repetitive presentation pattern involving learning to attend to the structure words, conjunctions, prepositions, and the like. Whenever possible the teacher introduces unison responses; again, individual work with a child in a study group should not exceed thirty seconds. The children's statements should be phrased rhythmically, and they are required to speak in loud, clear voices. They are also expected to clap to accentuate basic language patterns and conventions. The clap functions as an accent that helps to place the critical sentence element more dramatically, and is useful in defining the relationship between questions and statements ('There are how many (clap) days in a week? There are seven (clap) days in a week'). The clap, then, aids in teaching basic sentence forms, in correcting mistakes, and in calling attention to changes in sentences.

The backbone of the authors' programme is repetition in teaching basic patterns. The number of the cues given is reduced to a minimum, the explanations are short, and lots of examples are given. Incorrect responses are prevented whenever possible, the use value of learning is dramatised, and the child's thinking behaviour is encouraged. The child is praised for trying, if he did try. After correcting the response the teacher acknowledges that the child is working in a way that will ultimately lead to success.

Bereiter and Engelmann place the greatest emphasis on the teaching of language. Language at school is a teaching instrument, it is a tool for presenting concepts. The language of the teaching situation is primarily a language that is consistent with the 'show-and-tell' presentation.

The language taught to the children consists at first of two basic statement forms: 'This is a 'B'', which is an identity statement. (say, 'this is a dog'). The second statement form is: 'This 'B' is 'C' (say, 'this dog is an animal'.) These two statements are capable of processing all of the basic concepts.

Beginning Language Programme

All the tasks in the basic language programme revolve around two simple statement forms: 'This is a —' 'This — is —'. Yet these two forms become the media for transmitting a wide range of language and thinking skills; through these two forms the child learns first how to identify the things in his world, and how to ask questions about them. He then learns how to compare one thing with another, referring to size (large, small) texture (smooth, rough), and sound (loud, not loud, etc.).

Then the children proceed to the more sophisticated comparisons where many things are grouped together according to a certain conceptual dimension such as position or colour or shared characteristics. They learn the rudiments of empirical investigation, to ask themselves certain questions.

The child learns to unscramble experience, to reduce it to relevant questions and answers, to express what something is, and what additional statements can be made about it. ('What is the

bear sitting on? Yes, this is a chair. What do I know about chairs? . . . What can I say about this chair? . . . This chair is a piece of furniture . . .') Then the teacher introduces multiple — category exercises demonstrating that an object can be in more than one class at the same time.

Bereiter and Engelmann use several processes of verbal mediation. They stress labelling or naming objects and events in the environment; this is a valuable technique due to the fact that whereas by the time a middle-class child has entered school the habit of labelling has become automatic and unconscious, in the lower-class child the habit of labelling and naming is insufficiently instilled. Yet labelling is a form of behaviour which must become habitual and automatic in children if they are to develop their educational potential.

The children are also taught rudimentary forms of reasoning (if it is not — it must be —) particularly in reference to the most common polar opposites, e.g. big — little, up — down, long — short, etc.

Realising that the network of verbal associations of culturally disadvantaged children is more like that of middle-class children who are two or three years younger, and that the associations they know are not structured in a way which would make easier categorisation and conceptual analysis the authors advocate a systematic use of prepositions ('on, in, under, over, between'), if-then deductions, and so on.

Again, a great deal of attention is paid to abstraction and categorisation, that is to the breaking down of concepts and isolation of certain of their essential features; then various components of the concepts are placed in appropriate categories ('Tell me something that is a tool; a hammer is a tool — Tell me something that is not a tool. A chair is not a tool'.) Simple deductions are also studied. Such concepts as and, only, or, all, some, if — then are examined with the help of five-element models of five squares, then other shapes are introduced to reinforce learning. In a systematically developed programme children tackle compound statements, sentences with reversible elements, and many lessons are consolidated by the singing of

suitable songs.

There is also an emphasis on the enhancement in the child of the ability to structure and organise his experience by means of language so as to facilitate his learning, comprehension, retention, and recall.

The minimum goals of Bereiter's and Engelmann's preschool include also ability to name the basic colours, to count aloud to twenty without help and to one hundred with help at decade points, to count objects correctly to ten, to recognise and name the vowels and at least fifteen consonants, to distinguish printed words from pictures, to rhyme in some fashion to produce a word that rhymes with a given word, to tell whether two words do or do not rhyme, or to complete unfamiliar rhyming jingles; Finally, a sight reading vocabulary of at least four words in addition to proper names, with evidence that the printed word has the same meaning for them as the corresponding spoken word.

Other Activities

The intensive teaching embraces music because songs present statements which provide a great deal of repetition of these statements, have a distinctive rhythm which makes them easier to handle, and the tempo of the songs makes the children aware of words and their proper pronunciation. Songs are selected on the basis of what they do for the language development of the child.

The teaching of arithmetic is based on the understanding of counting starting in the counting by ones and systematically leading to the basic statements of arithmetic, and, elementary algebra ($2 + A = 2$, $2 + B = 3$); problems of addition, subtraction, and multiplication are tackled with the help of objects (balls etc.).

As for the reading programme it bears a certain resemblance to the system advocated in this country by Miss Nora Goddard with the important exception that there is no matching of words with the appropriate pictures of objects as in the authors' view, this can produce grave confusion. The emphasis in the reading programme

is on developing our awareness of words as distinct entities, and, on the alphabetical principle.

Evaluation

The work of Bereiter and Engelmann has been criticised on various grounds namely that their techniques impose a strain on children, that affectional ties between the teacher and the child are not close enough, that the programme is too exclusively concerned with academic learning, and that there was too little attention paid to creativity.

In defence of the direct-instruction method the authors point out that their approach does not minimise stress on children, but tries to direct it into productive channels and to develop in the children the ability to handle stress. They also claim that a direct-instruction approach does not provide the child with mothering (three teachers taking the children in turn in the course of two hours!) but does permit the development of close affectional ties, of a kind that are more productive of growth. They further stress that a preschool is generally in a better position than the typical infant first or second form to assure that a child's first encounters with school-type learning are successful and enjoyable; they argue that the emphasis of an academically — oriented instructional programme is on knowledge and skills that the child will need to apply in school. As for divergent thinking it is best developed through tasks that directly call for it. They maintain that tasks of this kind are included in the direct — instruction programme though they occupy a minor place. Finally, social learning is promoted in much the same way in academically oriented preschools as in traditional preschools, with the important difference that an academically-oriented preschool teaches children not only to play together, but also to work together, as they will be expected to do in the primary school.

The techniques of speeding-up the learning processes in children have aroused a storm of protests from those educationists who maintain that the child is not 'ready' to learn until he is six years old, and that it is extremely dangerous both for the children's emotional and intellectual development if parents and Kindergartens try to

accelerate the process.

I think that not enough is yet known of the long-term results of this cognitive speeding-up process; on the credit side it must be stated that in terms of academic progress the system has worked well with the disadvantaged children. For example, by the end of the year a group of five-year olds were placed at $7\frac{1}{2}$ year-old level in arithmetic and $6\frac{1}{2}$ year-old level in reading and spelling (on the Wide Range Achievement Test). The four-year olds had gained an average of 17-19 points and scored at six-year old level in arithmetic, reading and spelling.

With the more privileged children the results appear to be less impressive; there is also less excitement and less urgency about their responses.

In conclusion, I am very impressed by the programme of Bereiter's and Engelmann's. It is extremely thorough and well thought out; it opens up a great many new avenues, and I am sure that it is the best method in existence if — and this is a big if — we accept as our aim the building of an infrastructure for academic learning at school.

I have to admit, however, that I have a number of misgivings. For example, when it comes to the teaching of arithmetic the children become acquainted with addition, subtraction and multiplication but division is somewhat mysteriously left out. Yet Piaget has convincingly argued that division should be taught almost simultaneously with multiplication ($2 \times 4 = 8$ $8 \div 4 = 2$) as it tends to reinforce the concepts of numbers and their relative positions.

My second point is this: the authors use consistently the systematic expansion form of language (e.g. 'Book — Yes, this is a book — repeat . . .') and at no time do they use the 'modelling' pattern of speech ('Yes, it is fun reading books, particularly adventure stories') which is regarded to-day as leading more effectively to a richer expression because it focuses on ideas beyond what the child meant, and introduces more varied elements of speech and grammar.

Thirdly, suggestive evidence is beginning to

accumulate on the value of rich, as opposed to restricted, early experience much of it from animal studies. Hebb, for example, (in his 'Organisation of Behaviour') has shown that rats reared as pets and allowed to run around the house perform significantly better on a series of maze problems (a rat's intelligence test) than rats reared in cages in a laboratory. Also, the home-reared rats improved more during the course of the tests than those reared in cages. Freedom to move within a large area and explore highly diverse situations during infancy enables rats at maturity to solve problems more efficiently than rats exposed during infancy to more restricted environments. In the field of human learning, as Piaget and others have shown, the child learns mainly through interaction with his environment. Yet Bereiter's and Engelmann's preschool is an austere place; the number of toys, the opportunities for manipulation of objects, are deliberately curtailed, and this makes me wonder whether the children are not deprived in this way of some truly educative experiences.

Fourthly, the authors tend to ignore children's feelings to a large extent. I think that cognitive growth is not a thing apart, that a child who is unhappy and feels inadequate is not likely to immerse himself wholeheartedly in the work of the preschool. To put it at its lowest utilitarian level: his attitude and, above all, his motivation are definitely adversely affected.

Fifthly, it is a great pity that the authors show little concern for encouraging creativity in children. When a German youth² has asked Goethe: 'How did you begin to write in such a beautiful style?' Goethe is reported to have replied. 'I let things work upon me'. Unfortunately, the children's environment in the preschool is such that they are not given a chance to let things 'work' on them. As the President of the World Education Fellowship, Professor Saiyda³ has pointed out: 'A great deal of psychological unrest and unhappiness that we find to-day is due not exclusively to material deprivations but results also from the blocking up of the creative impulse in individuals and groups'.

There is little room in the programme to show the poetry ('The imaginary gardens with toads in them — Marianne Moore), the beauty, richness

and wonder of life.

The results obtained by Bereiter and Engelmann are impressive. Nevertheless, I wonder to what extent are the results due to the extremely favourable ratio of five pupils per teacher. Again, looking at the problem of education of disadvantaged children as a whole, I think that to achieve a lasting improvement an intensive follow-up is obviously necessary and the teachers themselves must aim at high yet realistic expectancies from the children. After all, if we are to enhance cognitive development in the under-privileged children, if we want them to develop a high degree of intelligence and good adjustment, we must foster warmth, support, and plentiful opportunity for achievement and independence at the earliest opportunity.

There is a well-known story ascribed to Michael Faraday, who had produced some demonstrations at a public lecture. The Prime Minister of the day happened to be present and remarked to him afterwards: 'Very interesting' Mr. Faraday, 'but what is the use of it?' Faraday replied: 'Mr. Prime Minister, one day, you will be able to tax it!' Faraday was right, for from these demonstration emerged electricity. And this is a good enough reason to undertake the enrichment programme of the disadvantaged children; because, as Schultz of Chicago University has shown, education is the most important factor in improving the earning capacity, and consequently the individual's financial contribution to the state.

There is, however, another reason which is even more important. A distinguished Brazilian writer, Julia Lopes de Almeida⁴ once wrote: 'Life is a great fountain which must not become dry not having been fully used'. It is right, therefore, that everybody is given a chance to make full use of the 'fountain'.

References:

1. A shortened version of Dr. Fulton's lecture "Is there a conspiracy against children?"
2. Quoted in K.G. Saiyda: 'Education, Culture and Social Order'.
3. Ibid.
4. 'A Mulher Brasileira'.

*The Role of Decision-Making in Information Generation: An Emerging New Potential in Guidance*¹

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Data Storage and Retrieval: Rudiments of Information

Needed for Guidance: Information Generation, Not just Fact Retrieval. Walz and Rich recently succinctly described the information process inherent in the Educational Research Information Center (ERIC) program of the United States Office of Education.² In this so-called information process, research reports are assembled, abstracted, and indexed. Reference and/or recovery of an article then becomes possible either directly or through index and/or abstract. The direct recovery of an article either bypasses or completes the recovery process. If the recovery process is bypassed, the person inquiring in the ERIC system has either been lucky or he pretty much knew what he wanted when he addressed the system. When article recovery actually completes a process which has included prior reference to abstract and/or index, the person is ordinarily then motivated to read the article because he has already engaged in a prior search for it. In the latter event, however, motivation is a peripheral, not primary, effect of the ERIC program.

The primary reason for ERIC then is to get an article into the hands of interested inquirers, not **necessarily** to interest the inquirer in inquiry itself which is the purpose of guidance. Therefore, I want to address that peripheral interest developing reason for existence of an information system, namely the capacity to lead an interested but originally uninformed inquirer to articles which are relevant to a reason for the inquiry generated by the inquiry process itself. In bringing your attention upon this distinction, I hope thereby to interest you in the **educational** capacity latent in data storage and retrieval, not just its **recovery** capacity. However, before doing so, I want first to remind you of the actual structures of data assembly,

abstraction, and indexing themselves as well as of some of the interest generating **potential** latent in those processes.

Abstracting and Indexing. Walz and Rich indicate that two preparatory phases are required to aid identification of relevant articles for an interested but somewhat uninformed inquirer. The first phase is that of abstracting the original article. Abstraction moves the meaning of an article from the realm of detail to that of generality. A good abstract is one which reduces the original while still remaining reasonably consistent with it. Since abstract and original are never identical, there is always a loss of detail in an abstract. However, the abstracter engages in considerable effort to insure that the reduction of meaning because of abstraction is small.

The second phase in making relevant articles useful for an interested but somewhat uninformed inquirer is that of indexing. The first task of indexing is to assign the article to each of one or more primary categories of the several pre-determined categories. Natural language processing of the words of an abstract now permit such indexing to be done by computer. The second task of indexing is the cross-indexing of articles to a secondary set of the pre-determined categories. This secondary task of recognizing and responding to **synonyms** of primary terms is accomplished by means of a thesaurus. Assignment of articles to synonymous categories is now also accomplished by computer once a thesaurus is placed in the memory of the computer.

After the abstract of an article has been indexed, recovery of the article becomes possible by direct selection of indexed terms. However, direct selection ordinarily leads to a large quantity of citations in a system of the magnitude of ERIC. The number of recovered citations can be reduced and the relevance of the reduced number of citations increased by using what Walz and Rich refer to as 'co-ordinate index terms.' 'Co-ordinate index terms' are two more of the indexed terms and/or their synonyms. When the inquirer uses 'co-ordinate index terms' he succeeds in identifying citations occupying the union of the two or more index terms which he has selected.

The use of 'co-ordinate index terms' in an interactive computer system starts with the construction of a **sentence** which describes the desired citations. The sentence is decomposed and re-sequenced by computer programs then in turn operates the computer and leads to a list of the citations fulfilling the conditions of the union of 'co-ordinate index terms' actually specified by the original sentence. Programming of computers now makes this approximation of sentence-like demands for data possible, practical and even reasonably satisfying.

Potential for Information Generation Inherent in ERIC. Walz and Rich carry their argument from the above delineation of information retrieval to consideration both of predictable outcomes and of implications for pupil personnel services. These predictions and their implications constitute a potential possible in ERIC but not now thoroughly implanted as I shall then go on to show.

Predictable outcomes of the process of data decomposition and article retrieval are, according to Walz and Rich: 1) synthesis and evaluation become dominant processes; 2) gaps in the information structure become evident; 3) use of impersonal resources increases; 4) opportunity for inter-professional interaction increases; 5) information, not a book, is retrieved; and 6) time to information is reduced and the band width of information is increased. The implications of data decomposition and article retrieval for pupil personnel services are: 1) the approach to learning will become that of inquiry; 2, 3, 4) the information generation process will require new learning approach skills including stress upon the processes of evaluative integration and of information coagulation, not absorption; 5, 6) changed methods of professional communication and increased collaborative efforts will occur; and 7) small esoteric information systems will develop.

Walz and Rich have enumerated important sets of outcomes and implications. However, their conclusion is:

Perhaps one of the most important conclusions to be drawn from reviewing the outcomes and implications of information systems is that they

may well **not be** a significant force for change. Wherever we have used 'will', we just as well could have inserted 'can'. We are more assured that the mechanics of information systems are workable than we are that individuals can make the necessary changes in attitudes and beliefs to use them. The emergence of information systems is undeniably a force for change in counselor education. Whether it results in changes or not will depend upon the professional response to that force.

Goal: Information Generation. Walz' and Rich's conclusion is an exact one for the ERIC system itself of which they write. However, it is not a necessary conclusion for **all** computer-controlled interactive systems. Inherent in the ERIC project are only rudimentary conditions of information generation, namely data reduction and interactive retrieval. Missing, however are the elements of data reduction by the inquirer himself and his subsequent retrieval of reduced data while explicit attention to decision-making is being created during both his reduction and retrieval processes. These missing elements will be a deliberate part of the Information System for Vocational Decisions (ISVD) which several colleagues and I³ have under construction. The missing elements to be furnished by the ISVD will actually turn data retrieval into information generation, the process I want to highlight for you. However, I must first describe the ISVD itself before I can continue to highlight information generation.

The Information System for Vocational Decisions Primary Data Files. The Information System for Vocational Decisions is to be a system in which facts/data⁴ about educational, military, and vocational opportunities are to be turned into the information of a personally-determined career. The ISVD will therefore consist of three primary data files, one for each of those opportunities. The ISVD data files will be much like the files of abstracts created for the ERIC system. However, each of these three primary data files in the ISVD will itself be partitioned in several ways. One of these partitions in each file will be for its use in exploration or clarification. The facts/data of an educational, military, and occupational alternative will be fewer and at a more general level for the exploratory mode than for the

clarificatory mode. When exploring an inquirer will not be expected to maintain preference for an alternative; he will be expected to be forming his basis for preferences among a personally-favoured set of alternatives. When clarifying, the inquirer will be expected either to maintain his preference for an alternative or to return to exploration. In this phase of decision-making, the inquirer is expected to bring the perspective of doubt to a previously crystallized basis of choice and to bear the anxiety of ignorance in the face of new facts about the chosen alternative.

The second partition of each of the primary data files will be applied **within** each of the exploratory and clarificatory parts of a data file. The second partition will be by the discontinuity in life for which the data file is conceived to be pertinent. In the case of the education data file, steps will be toward subject specialization as represented in the choices of: 1) high school curriculum; 2) post-secondary institutions; 3) post-secondary specialty; 4) graduate institutions; and 5) graduate specialty. In the case of the military data file, steps will be toward promotional opportunity within choice of enlisted and officer ranks of each of the three Armed Services. In the case of the occupation data file, steps will be toward specialization as represented in the choices: 1) occupation; 2) job or placement; 3) position and/or promotion; and 4) career.

The occupation data file will have an adjunctive file which will incorporate forecasts for occupations and permit file blocking of occupational facts/data according to national and regional conditions. The primary purpose of this set of forecasting facts/data will be developed later while discussing the planning phases of career decision-making.

Purpose and Self Development. The ISVD will offer access to the three primary data files within the context of achieving purposeful activity during self development. Two pedagogical modes will be provided for this context. One pedagogical mode will be teaching **about** concepts relevant to purpose in self development. The concepts included in this mode will be: 1) the psychology of becoming purposeful; 2) self and decision-making; 3) psychological attributes and educational, military, and occupational decisions;

and 4) any needed instructions for use of the three primary data files.

The second pedagogical mode will be that of decision-making applied to the data both of another's life and of one's own life. The basic pedagogic mode with the data of another's life will be that of a game. An inquirer and others will either co-operate or compete in playing rounds with the data of another's life and his decisions which are to be anticipated. This game context essentially requires time planning in relation to future possibilities and consequences. The context of time planning will be in terms of education, work, leisure, and family. Future possibilities and consequences will be retrieved from the forecasting data file mentioned earlier. The playing of rounds of the game will provide rudimentary simulation of career development. However, the ISVD will also let inquirers substitute their **own** data in the game structure and will then use this simulated career development structure in **personal decision-making**. In personal decision-making, the basic pedagogic mode will be that of guidance in counseling.

Subsidiary Data Files and Routines. The substitution of one's self for the life circumstance of another will create need for two kinds of subsidiary files. One subsidiary file will be that of the individual's education and psychological characteristics. This file will be created and maintained both to permit counselors to call for cumulative records and to permit individual inquirers to generate alternative possibilities for themselves at decision points by using the predictive framework in relation to the anonymous psychological characteristics and choices of previous persons whose histories of prior psychological characteristics and later accomplishments are stored in this file. This particular technique will in the ISVD be augmented by a procedure due to Thomas Hutchinson. The Hutchinson procedure will allow the inquirer to specify both alternatives he is considering and levels of reward which he seeks from each specified alternative. The procedure will then provide indication of whether the inquirer's psychological data are like those of others who before him chose the alternative and achieved the designated rewards or not.

The second subsidiary file will store the elements of the person's decisional frameworks in working out his life plans. The file will consist of summary statements which the person generates at the conclusion of each personal decision-making episode and of the cognitive structuring of his career arising from using the routines of REVIEW, EXPLORATION, and CLARIFICATION applied repetitively in relation to each discontinuity with which the person addresses his future and learns from his past in the ISVD. The inquirer will of course **himself** be engaged in abstracting his life circumstance while creating these data for his file.

Inherent in the subsidiary file on the person's decisional framework will also be a procedure due to Terence J. O'Mahony. This procedure will be a paired comparison of vaguely pictured occupational activities presented for reason of exposing the person's self concept in the context of occupational activity. These paired comparison operations applied to pictures will give a person clearer understanding of himself in ideal and actual terms. The understanding will then be an **explicit** basis upon which the inquirer can deepen his knowledge of his union of personality and occupation. Use of the procedure will be available for the mode of exploration, not clarification. In short, the O'Mahoney procedure will be one of the System's procedures for permitting decision in an educational, military, occupational, and family context for reason of discovering harmonies and disharmonies in personal psychologies and activities. The pictures of the single illustration which O'Mahoney now has available will have to be expanded for such more widespread use, of course.

From Facts/Data to Information:

MONITOR as Information Generating Function
Information from Facts/Data. Walz and Rich indicated in the quotation noted earlier that the existence of data reduction and retrieval can have the consequences of theirs which I enumerated prior to the quotation itself. However, Walz and Rich stop somewhat short of asserting that data reduction and interactive retrieval actually will have the noted consequences. I in turn claim that the Information System for Vocational Decisions brings data reduction and

interactive retrieval into a condition where the Walz and Rich consequences actually **will** be realized, not just **can** be realized. I interrupted my defense of that assertion by the necessity to describe the ISVD itself as an interactive data reduction and retrieval system embedded within decision-making. Decision-making thereby has the role of information generator in the ISVD. Facts/data are turned into information by the inquirer within the context of decision-making **when** decision-making is subject to MONITOR, a concept I now specify.

ISVD and MONITOR. The basic scheme of ISVD is to have data files in which previously known facts/data are stored. The System will then expect and shape personal interaction with the data files. Personal interaction is both to be taught and to be used in the System. Use of the System can first be as a game and then in the reality of one's own life. Access by way of the routines, REVIEW, EXPLORATION, and CLARIFICATION, provide the context of use in one's own life under guidance of the System. The Access Routines will depend on the primary and co-ordinate index terms coded into the data files. These index terms will be such as to locate synonyms within and between files and to cross-reference categories from file to file. The thesaurus of synonyms and the co-ordinate index terms will primarily be developed from vocational development, vocational maturity, and agency development theories.

MONITOR will then be fashioned to operate at three levels. At the rudimentary level vocational development, vocational maturity, and agency development theories will just be used within the paradigm of decision-making which O'Hara and I have specified.⁵ The System will itself be programmed to assess the quality of decision-making as applied to the categories of the data files within the several theories. This will provide a first-order and mechanistic way of guarding against failures of personal operation during the decision-making uses of the ISVD.

The second level of operation of MONITOR will be that of giving the inquirer access to the rules and procedures of the first-level monitor. The inquirer will need to be taught how abstracts and the primary and co-ordinate index terms as

well as the thesaurus of the data reduction process inherent in the REVIEW Access Routine are made. The inquirer will also have to be given access to the actual procedures by which a primary and co-ordinate index and thesaurus operate in the computing system. He will then be permitted to use his own primary and co-ordinate index terms and thesaurus to process the summary data collected during REVIEW of his career development. This procedure actually creates the smaller esoteric information systems which Walz and Rich predict will spring up within the conception of ERIC. However, within the ISVD these smaller esoteric information systems will be really personal and not accessible to another except upon authorization of an inquirer. In fact, the smaller esoteric information systems actually are the rudiments of the cognitive structure upon which the inquirer premises his personality in the realms of educational, military, vocational, and family decisions. ISVD will thus encourage the existence and applaud the formation of smaller esoteric information systems. These personal guidance systems constitute the compromises with totality which the individual must make in order to function within the expectations that he will be accurate, detailed, and honest with himself in an ever-maintained effort to perfect his understanding of his actions and his experience.

ISVD and Meaning through Thought, Counseling, and Supervision. Although the substitution of a personal 'MONITOR' for the original System MONITOR represents a giant step toward understanding in individuality, it does not represent the completion of the process. Completion of the process further requires the machine-free use of 'Monitor' in the practiced ease of skilled appreciation of thought in experience and action. This condition is never fully attained; it is only ever more closely approximated. The approximation to effortless ease in skilled appreciation of thought in experience and action, requires generalization of two phases of 'MONITOR'. One of the phases of 'MONITOR' which must be generalized is that of the language of 'MONITOR' itself. MONITOR will necessarily be linguistic. As Dudley and I indicate,⁶ language can never be fully co-extensive with experience. Therefore, the inquirer must be encouraged to see 'MONITOR' as but a

stage in understanding the harmonization of language and experience, not the end result itself. The end is more akin to realization of language and experience as a paradox⁷, a predicament capable of being understood and appreciated but incapable of full formal construal in co-extensive fashion.

The second parts of 'MONITOR' which must be generalized in reaching for a practiced ease with thought, choice, and action is the experiencing of the condition in social, not just machine, context. In short, the person must move his personal 'MONITOR' from machine context to interpersonal context. The counselor who supervises the inquirer's discovery of his personal 'MONITOR' within the interactive computer processes of the ISVD must be the first agent of generalization of 'MONITOR' from machine to interpersonal context. The counselor must use his own interaction with the inquirer as laboratory for that generalization and his skill in assessment of creative processes as his professional activity in that generalization. The supervisor of a person at school, Armed Service, or work must be the second-line agent of generalization of 'MONITOR' from machine to interpersonal context. The supervisor must also use his own interaction with the inquirer as laboratory for the generalization but must in turn focus his skill in assessment and cultivation of creative processes on the substance of the inquirer's role obligations in the particular situation under supervision. Finally, the inquirer is himself the ultimate agent for generalization of 'MONITOR' from machine to interpersonal context.. The inquirer must experience the weakness of the machine MONITOR within the context of his fantasy for control over circumstance and gain confidence thereby in his capacity both to know and not to know his anticipatory guidance system and its consequences in his life space.

But Ultimately Only Another Further Approximation of Information Generation. I trust it is clear that the Information System for Vocational Decisions with its expected ramifications into non-machine and personal collaborative activity offers potential through MONITOR, 'MONITOR', counseling, and supervision of turning the processing of

facts/data because of data reduction, retrieval, and use into an information generating function which in turn is used, understood, and appreciated. In this sense I believe that what Walz and Rich suspect only **can** happen within ERIC will happen within ISVD.

Despite the strength of my assertion for the information generation potential of ISVD, let none of us suffer the delusion that information generalization will actually occur **universally**. The ISVD will **expect** information generation to happen. The ISVD will consistently **attempt to make** information generation occur. The ISVD will be **diagnostic** about failures of information generation to appear. However, the ISVD will **only actually accomplish** information generation with those inquirers who both catch on to its theory and themselves come to use that theory without defense toward the System's part in its origin. Polanyi⁸ is of similar mind with regard to the general theory of tacit understanding within which the ISVD is organized. Because of the general appearance of tacit understanding throughout past generations who lacked ISVD, I am persuaded that the rate of occurrence of this phenomenon will be even greater with use of ISVD than it is without use of the ISVD. If so, Walz' and Rich's predictions and implications **will happen**, not just **can** happen. Only the frequency of occurrence of their implications will then remain in doubt.

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4. Facts/data come in two conditions, fixed and modifiable. I therefore elect to adopt the cumbersome term, 'facts/data', to indicate this fact throughout the paper. Facts are directly recoverable without mediation except for storage and later recovery. On the other hand, data must be additionally processed by the numeric and/or linguistic routines of a mediational system.
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OBITUARY

Miss Lucy G. Woodcock, whose death occurred on February 29th, was one of Australia's most remarkable teachers and citizens. She was a foundation member of the NSW Teachers' Federation, Senior Vice President for 20 years, and a member of its Executive, almost without break until her retirement in 1953.

When the New Education Fellowship (now World Education Fellowship) was founded in Australia in 1937, Lucy Woodcock was one of its most prominent and hard-working foundation members. She became our second President, and then served continuously as Vice-President on the Executive of the NSW Section, until her death.

During her long service as a teacher in NSW schools, from 1910 when she was appointed a pupil teacher to her last appointment as Principal of Erskineville school (where she worked for 22 years), Lucy became known as one of our fearless fighters for enlightened and progressive education, for human rights and social justice — especially for children and women — and for international friendship and world peace. Those who knew her well will never forget her immense power as a fighter for people and causes needing a champion and her compassion and concern for children in every land. She was a true internationalist and was especially concerned to support and help migrants to Australia.

It was typical of Lucy that, when in the early days NEF was short of funds and house-room, she generously opened her city flat to us for Executive and other meetings, and for years the planning work of the Fellowship went on in the pleasant atmosphere of her rooms.

We have lost a great educator and a sterling worker for human betterment, but the name of Lucy Woodcock will never be forgotten by her innumerable friends.

CORRESPONDENCE

Editor,

As it is nearly two years since the first trained counsellors began their work in English schools, the National Association of Educational Counsellors decided that it was time for a general meeting to be held where we could discuss the ways in which counselling is developing in Britain.

This meeting was held in Oxford on Saturday, 22nd June and those attending included:

- a. counsellors with one or two years experience,
- b. counsellors who were just completing their training,
- c. others, including Headteachers and College of Education Lecturers who are interested in the development of counselling.

A valuable discussion resulted touching on many topics, including the way in which the counsellor fits into the organisation of the school, and how he can assist both teachers and taught to get a maximum return for their efforts. The fact was recognised that, whilst the counsellor was a specialist in the wellbeing of individual children, there must at all times be a close and cordial working relationship between the counsellor and the teaching staff.

It was realised that the economic position of the country was causing some authorities to hesitate before agreeing to introduce this new form of personnel into their schools. Yet it is a waste of assets not to allow trained counsellors to use the skills that they have acquired. Especially is this so when some authorities are appointing teachers with no training in counselling to posts as Teacher/Counsellors.

Yours faithfully,
R. G. LANE,
Hon. Secretary/Treasurer,
National Association of Educational Counsellors

Dear Madam,

R. L. Richer's article 'Schooling and the Self-Concept' (New Era, Vol. 49 No. 7) contained much that was of interest and, of course, raised many issues of fundamental importance.

But I would like to put the view that the author has, in the latter part of his writing, made what is — in view of much of contemporary writing — a 'natural' error: he has confused the meaning of the terms 'schizoid' and 'schizophrenia'.

I think Dr. Frank Lake, in his **Clinical Theology***, is very illuminating on this point:

'The diagnostic category of 'the schizoid personality' is unfamiliar to many medical practitioners. Some psychiatrists use the term, not as a diagnostic category, but as an adjective qualifying personality, as one of its traits. Another psychiatrist assured a group of clergy and doctors in my presence that 'the schizoid is always a precursor of schizophrenia'. This is certainly not true. It is equally unsatisfactory to substitute 'simple schizophrenia' for 'the schizoid personality disorder'. It must be emphasised that the schizoid personality is not essentially linked with schizophrenia. Only a very small proportion of schizoid personalities later develop schizophrenia. Moreover, almost half of those who do develop schizophrenia were not recognisably schizoid personalities when their psychotic breakdown occurred. In fact, the learned professions contain many persons of the highest technical competence whose 'normality' is unquestioned, who nevertheless react, under stress of commitment to certain kinds of emotional situations, in a deeply schizoid manner. Yet they show no tendency at all to breakdown into psychotic illness or insanity. . . . The term 'schizoid personality' finds

a place in **The Standard Psychiatric Nomenclature** adopted in 1950 by **The American Psychiatric Association** for the classification of mental disorders. It is here characterised by (1) an enduring and malajustive pattern of behaviour manifesting avoidance of close relations with others; (2) inability to express hostility and aggressive feelings directly; (3) autistic thinking (i.e., thinking unduly directed to wards oneself and the inner personal view of the situation, at the expense of the information actually available from the external world); (4) a shut-in seclusive, withdrawn, introverted personality. . . . The root 'schizo' derives from the Greek verb 'to split'. In this condition there has been a radical split in the ego, in fact in the total person. This took place earlier, and the split in the ego goes deeper than, for instance, it does in hysterical splitting or depressive splitting. As a result of this overwhelming infantile trauma, the ego, which was beginning to develop a relationship of trust in persons in its environment, is split from top to bottom. Only a semblance of trust remains. A part of the ego splits off and becomes regressive, seeking the intrauterine security from which it has been ejected. A part of the ego forced into continual contact with the 'Terrible Mother' is split off, and is identified with a longing for death and annihilation. The ego-splitting experience may be due to 'biological pain' (e.g. of crushing or distress in the birth passage during a difficult labour or forcep delivery, or as a result of post-natal asphyxia, pain, disease or deliberation), or to 'ontological pain' (e.g. the two-prolonged absence of the mother who is the necessary personal source of being).' (p. 557-9).

I must apologise for quoting at some length; but these are, after all, rather important matters.

Yours sincerely,
K. F. POPL
38 Highgate Drive,
West Knighton,
Leicester.

*Published by Darton, Longman & Todd 1966

CHRISTIAN TEAMWORK INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION AND TAVISTOCK INSTITUTE OF HUMAN RELATIONS

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BOOK REVIEWS

'Family Advice Services'

Aryeh Leissner

Longmans Green, Price 12s. 6d.

In the series 'Studies in Child Development,' published by Longmans, Mr Leissner has written a valuable book for all Children's Officers who are contemplating preventive aspects of their work of helping families in the community.

This book is very readable and well set out, clearly showing (p. 37) that the service has been used by those who might have been helped with their child rearing problems by the Health Visitor, with their marital conflicts by the Marriage Guidance Counsellors and with practical problems where the appropriate department of the Local Authority could also have been consulted. So much so that it would seem to me that only a very experienced Family Advice Officer could be expected to cater for the needs of the wide range of requests from the clients. It seemed to me that greater co-operation by the Children's Department with the Citizen's Advice Bureau might achieve as good results as this service is already so well known to the public.

In the cases illustrated there was no example of a family being referred to a Child Guidance Clinic, although some of the parents were given psychiatric help.

My overall conclusion is that, when we are so short of Social Workers and their mobility from one branch of social work to another is so great, the setting up of Family Advice Centres by all Children's Departments would be unjustified but there might be areas of special need.

J. M. Lomax-Simpson, M.B., Ch.B., D.P.M.

Health and Happiness

Rose Hacker

The Working World Series edited by S. S. Segal; Cassell 1967.

Book number 60 of the series deals with many different problems which children will encounter during and after they have left school. The book is divided into 28 small chapters, each dealing with a particular problem. There are topics on health and hygiene, including how to remain healthy after leaving school, hygiene in jobs in a hospital, factory,

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food distribution. Another set of topics deal with a person's social outlook and how to make friends and about various activities where one can meet people. There are a couple of chapters on money, how it can be wisely and foolishly spent, comparing saving for a holiday and wasting it on cigarettes and drink.

The next section deals with the problem of boy-girl relationships and gives a story of an unmarried girl who had a baby, and goes on to relate the facts of life and questions which can arise from this. The last set of topics deal with independence, arguments with parents as to how much freedom children should have and finally ends with marriage and the family in relation to the neighbourhood and the outlook to the future.

The book is intended for the fourth year (14-15 years) and although most of the topics are helpful and suit the age group they are written for, in parts the book is rather childishly written. What could prove useful is that after each chapter there are a few questions to discuss and here again, most are suited to the age group whereas others would suit more a second or third year. On the whole the book is simply and well written and should be a useful book to have on the shelf of a classroom library.

Helen Griffiths.

The Counselor in the School: Selected Readings.

Edited by Cecil H. Patterson. McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 W. 42nd Street, New York, New York, 10036, 1967. Pp. 495. \$7.95 Reviewed by Alice S. Gordon, Director, Career Development Program, Bureau of Pupil Personnel Services, Chicago Board of Education.

The significance of the changing and developing role of the school counselor is evidenced by the publication of this compilation for students of guidance and counseling. So much has been written and so much could have been included, that to make the text manageable the editor included only selections from professional journals, adding reference list of books and other materials for further investigation. This collection of selected readings, intended as an introductory text, is comprehensive in scope, and with a well organized and readable format.

The selections are organized around nine major areas, which include the place of the counselor in the school, the philosophical and psychological bases for the profession, the roles and functions, the skills and services, the relationship to other professionals, standards of selection and education, evaluation and problems. Each of the nine sections is prefaced with the editor's delineation of the problem or issue. An attempt is made to present varying points of view, and occasionally the editor intersperses a commentary. The total of all the reference lists at the end of each chapter should give the interested student or counselor or administrator a valuable resource bibliography.

Of interest to counselors and administrators for several re-readings should be Part II on 'Philosophical Problems and Issues', Part III on 'Counselor Role and Function', and Part VIII on 'Group Counseling'. Part VII on 'Occupational Information in School Counseling' is informative but inadequate in treatment. More emphasis and consideration should have been given to the role of the counselor in disadvantaged urban communities and the role of the counselor in the elementary school.

In any such collection there will be some criticism with what has been omitted. The editor recognizes the limitations of this approach. However, the text should serve its purpose. There is enough here for use in other courses and for in-service meetings.

Twentieth Century Britain

Dennis Richards and Anthony Quick

Longmans, p.p. 468, Price 15s.

This is the sixth volume in the Longmans series 'A History of Britain' and is likely to be at least as popular as the other volumes. In the preface the authors stress that 'Twentieth Century Britain' is intended to appeal to those teachers 'who require a detailed narrative as a basis for discussion rather than a more analytical text which omits most of the narrative! The authors succeed in satisfying this criterion, and in doing so have produced a book which will assist teachers to interest pupils in history.

In this book the style of writing and the ordering of both events and chapters help to emphasise the narrative quality of history. The amount of detail is sufficient to provide both G.C.E. 'O' level and C.S.E. pupils with the information they require as a basis for discussion, and a framework for further investigation, without being too demanding. The authors abstain, however, from posing questions and consequently teachers using this book must themselves frame the question which will stimulate thought, further enquiry and a realisation that many points of historical interpretation are matters of dispute.

The authors reiterate much that they said in 'Britain 1851-1945' but they also include three new chapters. The topics covered in these chapters are The Post-War Years at Home 1945-1964, British Foreign Policy and the 'Cold War', and The Evolution of the Commonwealth. They have also expanded their treatment of several topics, including Science, Industry and Communications in the Early 1900s, Social Developments 1914-1964, Art and Thought 1914-1964, and Canada, Australia and New Zealand in the Twentieth Century.

Another desirable feature of this book is that it is illustrated more fully than 'Britain 1851-1945'. This means that its coverage of these topics which they have in common, though textually very similar, is better. These topics include The Struggle for Irish Home Rule, Imperialism, The Boer War, The Rise of Labour, The Last of Liberal Rule and the Outbreak of the First World War, The First World War, from Versailles to the Slump. The 1900s and the Threat of the Dictators. The Second World War, and Modern Science, Communications and Industry.

This book contains most of the best features of a school text book. The topics are well selected and the coverage is wide including scientific, cultural and social aspects as well as political and economic ones. It is more copiously illustrated than most history text books, and the illustrations are relevant as well as numerous. Wisely used by the teacher it will aid a worthwhile study of the Twentieth Century, particularly by G.C.E. 'O' level pupils. The study could satisfy the criteria of good history teaching by providing an introduction to the methods of the historian, and stimulating interest and further work in the subject, with this book providing the necessary factual basis in a very acceptable manner.

Alaric Dickinson.

Counselling— Definitions and Dilemmas

Irene E. Caspari

Principal Psychologist Tavistock Clinic.

What is 'Counselling'? How could it be defined?

In general terms it might be described as a dialogue between someone with a problem and someone with specialised knowledge who can help in the understanding and solving of the problem.

On the surface this definition may sound simple and clear, but if scrutinised it seems to give rise to a multitude of dilemmas.

1. What do we mean by 'a problem'? Do we mean a general problem concerned with issues such as marriage, career, business or education or are we thinking of more specific problems connected with special occurrences, e.g. fear of failure in an examination? And what about undefined problems which cannot be connected with any source?

Certainly a counsellor is concerned with all these types of problems which overlap to a great extent. For instance, a young person may be worried about failing an examination which would seriously affect his career, but his fear may be closely linked to a wish to remain dependent and of this he is entirely unaware.

2. What do we mean by 'understanding' a problem? On what level should it be understood? For instance, Norman, aged 14, came to me because he was failing in his schoolwork. He saw his problems primarily in terms of his poor school report and the parental disapproval arising from it. He was also aware of its effect on his educational prospects and his future career. Underlying these worries, however, were anxieties in relationship to his mother and father, some of them related to very early childhood experiences. To what depth was it necessary to understand Norman's problems?

3. By what criteria can we determine whether or not a problem is 'solved'? Apart from the Counsellor's depth of understanding, are there not a multitude of other factors involved, such as practical possibilities and the insight of the 'counsee'? Norman, for instance, was aware of the affect of his bad reports on his future career. In discussion with me he

could also accept the fact that he could get his mother's attention by his lack of success in school. Basically, however, the whole problem was linked to a very complicated unconscious collusion between mother and son. Had this issue been raised, a great deal of anxiety would have been aroused in the whole family. This could have been used to modify the problem had there been the possibility of on-going discussions, but the family lived far away. Therefore, I suggested that the problem might be 'solved' by some practical arrangements that would give Norman more adequate time for his homework. He, himself, suggested that this would improve the standard of his work considerably. I discussed the difficulties in connection with these arrangements first with Norman alone, and then with him and his mother, and warned both of them that, in spite of Norman's good intentions, the plan might fail, in which case, I suggested that they should come and see me again. To what extent had I helped to 'solve' Norman's problem?

4. How can the counsellor's specialised knowledge be defined? In Norman's case my specialised knowledge was that of a psychologist, but Norman might have taken his problem to any member of a school staff. Equally he might have been referred to a Child Guidance Clinic for psychotherapy. In the latter case he might have been helped by a child psychotherapist whose training requires him to have a personal analysis, a thorough knowledge of psychoanalytic theories and supervision of clinical cases over a period of several years. Obviously, such intensive training cannot be given to all counsellors. How then are we to define the difference between the counsellor's skills and those of the psychotherapist? Is a counsellor to be seen as a second rate psychotherapist and would that not be ruinous to a profession? Moreover, some people acquire counselling skills by their own intuition and experience like George Lyward, who is able to help very disturbed young people who have hitherto appeared to be untreatable. There is a danger here: If counsellors, like teachers, are thought to be 'born, not made' what place will specific training have in their career-structure? Will training be considered unnecessary, at least for some, in the same way as teacher training is not required for graduates and what effect would this have on counselling as a profession?

These questions give rise to further dilemmas: For

instance, **who** should be a counsellor? Should he be a member of a special profession, and if so, how can that profession be integrated into the school structure? To what extent would it depend on the Head of each particular school, who may or may not be able to do this successfully. Or should the counsellor be a member of the school staff already in a counselling role, such as tutors and housemasters? And what about the 'ordinary' teacher? Does he not need counselling skills as well? Have we not all been in situations in which a pupil has brought us his problems? Would it be advisable to send him to another person when he has shown us his trust?

Furthermore, is not a teacher often in a better position to help a pupil with his problems than any counsellor? Has he not at his disposal an opportunity to deal with problems in an indirect way and might this not be sometimes more effective, particularly if the problem is too painful to be discussed directly? I am thinking of the various kinds of 'expression work' such as art, music and pottery, and the study of literature. All these media enable a person to experience feelings and to express them, often without becoming aware of them. Could Norman, for instance, have received more help by reading 'Hamlet' and discussing Hamlet's relationship to his mother with his teacher than he could from his consultation with me? Have the members of the NEF conferences not all had similar experiences in the expression groups?

Another issue about counselling causes me some concern: why is it so fashionable at present? Is it really because the adolescent's life has become so much more problematic? Or is this interest in counselling perhaps used to avoid more fundamental issues such as the basic reform of the structure and content of our secondary school teaching? Maybe the adolescents in secondary schools are so troublesome because they, like their more articulate colleagues in universities, are rebelling against the inadequacies of the teaching they receive? Is counselling seen by teachers as an easy way to get rid of the troublemakers? Is it a means to evade the much more difficult task of replacing the present 'subject-centred' secondary schools by 'pupil-centred' institutions, such as our primary schools? This would necessitate fundamental changes in the subject-teachers' role.

All changes cause tensions and anxieties which most of us tend to avoid. Are the subject-teachers crying out for counsellors to evade such a change?

A Personal View — Some Interim Conclusions

1. At present, I am in favour of concentrating on increasing the counselling skills of teaching staff in counselling roles. I would envisage such training to include group discussions of the participants' own experience with the aim of increasing their understanding of underlying feelings in other people and in themselves.

2. I am very much in favour of giving some training in counselling skills to all teachers. In particular they need to understand how to use the curriculum and especially the expression work in the indirect way of solving emotional problems. Marjorie Hoard and David Holbrook have shown us the way in which the teaching situation can be used for this purpose and Winnicott has very lucidly outlined this aspect of teaching in respect to Nursery school teachers. To my mind, this is the very special contribution a teacher can make towards the emotional well-being of his pupils.

3. In the long term it is probably most important to encourage a change of attitude from subject-based to pupil-based secondary education, a change, which, in my opinion, would be one of the most important ways of reducing the number and severity of problems which trouble our adolescents at present.

Note

Irene Caspari who is principal psychologist and senior tutor in the department for children and parents, Tavistock Clinic holds the certificate of the National Froebel Foundation, and has degrees in modern languages and in psychology. She has taught in kindergarten and primary stage schools and in a grammar school since 1954. She has engaged in some interesting research projects in which her wide clinical experience has been valuable. She has been a member of a Conference on "Learning and Leadership" when the University Department of Adult Education collaborated with the Leicester Tavistock Institute of Human Relations.

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Counselling in Surrey Schools

Charles Parkin M.A.

Senior Assistant Education Officer,
Surrey County Council.

During the summer of 1967 an 'ad hoc' group of Headmasters and Headmistresses of all types of secondary school, the Headmaster of a special school, the Vice-Principal of a Technical College, members of the County Inspectorate and a member of the administrative staff of the Education Department, some twenty people in all, met in Surrey to discuss informally particular problems which might be expected to arise as a result of the raising of the school leaving age. It was anticipated that they would concern themselves with such issues as the curriculum of the older pupils who would not be taking external examinations, the administration of fifth- and sixth-form units and the use of work experience schemes.

It became clear at once, however, that the group were more concerned about catering adequately for the personal needs of individual boys and girls than about any other factor involved. Three long meetings were devoted almost exclusively to a consideration of this topic, which was enlarged to embrace not only the needs of the pupils who would be remaining at school for an extra year but those of children of all ages in the secondary schools.

Changing patterns, both inside and outside the school, are giving increasing importance to the problem of enabling a boy or girl who finds difficulty in adjusting to these, to achieve the personal stability which must form the basis of full mental and social development.

The trend towards larger secondary schools has accentuated the difficulty of catering for the individual within them. While house systems, tutorial systems and other devices go far towards breaking down a large community into smaller ones in which the individual is important, there still remain boys and girls whose problems are demanding of more time than the teacher with a full teaching timetable can reasonably give and sometimes of more knowledge than he can be expected to possess.

The advent of the very large school also brings special problems. One of the main factors leading to increased size is the expanding range of studies demanded in fifth and sixth forms of all types of secondary school with a resulting emphasis on preparation for public examinations in which almost half the school may now be involved. One cannot measure what the effect of this may be on the individual who is judged to be unsuitable to take any examinations at all or who is expected to do so but lacks confidence in his own ability.

Outside the school, the strain which can arise between parent and child during a period when young people are seeking greater freedom than their predecessors have enjoyed, is well known. It is clear that this can seriously affect the performance of a pupil in his school, where, indeed, similar strain can develop, particularly if the pupil should be critical of the practices generally accepted there. There thus may arise intractable problems, the solutions to which are expensive in terms of time and energy. A problem may become almost insoluble if, as is frequently the case, the parent, whether through indifference or hesitation, is not in touch with the school and if the school has no ready means of establishing a working relationship with the parent.

The external pressures brought to bear upon a school to produce sound results in academic studies are likely to influence its use of the posts of special responsibility which it has to offer. One cannot blame it for using most of these to ensure that subject teaching is competently organised and from time to time even to recruit highly qualified teachers whose 'special responsibility' would be difficult to define. This tendency does, however, mean that the special posts available for staff with more general responsibilities such as counselling may be severely limited and likely to continue to be so until economic conditions improve.

It would, of course, be wrong to suggest that, in spite of their difficulties, schools are not alive to their direct responsibilities towards the individual as a person and are not doing what they can to meet them. What is true in many cases, however, is that there is no formal structure within the school to undertake these responsibilities similar to the structures which are established to cater for other features of school life and organisation. There is

thus the risk that the personal stresses of individual pupils may not be detected and dealt with until it is almost too late, if not entirely too late, for them to be remedied in time for the pupil to benefit from what the school is aiming to provide.

Having recognised the need for a counselling service, there is no easy way of meeting it.

Acceptance of the need itself varies in degree.

There are those who may feel that the normal discipline of a school provides perfectly adequate means for dealing with all its pupils, while, at the other extreme, there may be those who regard it as quite inadequate to meet the problems of a high proportion of them.

Wherever one may stand in this matter, it is worth bearing in mind that because a boy or girl does not present behaviour problems, it is not necessarily safe to assume that there is no need for help. It is true, too, that even quite minor worries, which can be very simply allayed, may interfere with a pupil's performance over a considerable period.

What evidence there is certainly appears to show that in any large school there are sufficient pupils needing individual assistance to justify special provision being made for them. At this point, however, it ought, perhaps, to be recognised that what is done to help by whoever is designated to do it may have a direct bearing on the pupil's course of study in the school and possibly on the type of career which he follows.

There is therefore much to be said for a team approach towards the pupil's personal problems, his daily life in the classroom and outside and his preparation for his occupation when he leaves school. This conception points to the establishment of a department with duties as important as those of any subject or other department in the school. The establishment of such a department should facilitate the provision of a continuing vocational guidance service throughout a pupil's time at school and ensure a reconciliation of his mental ability, his personal characteristics and the demands of his ultimate job.

Since this article is primarily concerned with counselling, it is not proposed to deal further here with the relationships between selection of course, vocational guidance and development of character

but to discuss briefly some of the approaches to a counselling service which are in operation in Surrey.

Some years ago, following the publication of the Newsom Report, the Education Committee increased by one the allocation of Headships of Department to a limited number of schools to enable each of these schools to appoint a man or woman who would have particular responsibility for the children covered by the report. It was envisaged that this member of staff would not only watch the interests of boys and girls of only average ability who were not adjusting themselves easily to school life and work but would also concern himself with the courses being provided in the school for those who would probably not be taking external examinations. This involved establishing links with the outside world to lend a practical reality to school work, to enable these pupils to have an early and continuing contact with the fields of employment suitable for them and to develop in them a sense of responsibility towards the community as a whole. The effectiveness of such a scheme will clearly vary from school to school. While it is not proposed to discuss in detail the various factors affecting the degree of success achieved it should be mentioned that one of the most vital of these is the acceptability of this Head of Department to his fellow-teachers and particularly to the Heads of the subject departments. This is not surprising when it is borne in mind that his work must bring him into contact with most, if not all, of these and that he will frequently need to persuade them to make special provision for individual pupils and groups of pupils for reasons which they might not understand and, if they understood them, might not be happy to accept. The Surrey scheme was not, of course, planned as a full solution to the problem of counselling because it was not designed to embrace the whole school and it would clearly be wrong to assume that counselling is needed only for less able children. It was, however, aimed, *inter alia*, at dealing with part of this problem.

The Education Committee has assisted a number of its teachers to attend the one-year course provided by some of the Universities. Unfortunately, there are, as yet, not sufficient teachers who have undertaken these courses and subsequently taken up posts in the County for a reliable assessment to be made of

the effectiveness of the courses as a preparation for work in the schools. If, therefore, it is now said that some Heads at least are hesitant about appointing teachers from outside their schools to be specifically responsible for counselling and allied work purely on the basis of their having taken these courses, this should not be assumed to imply any criticism of the courses themselves. The attitude stems rather from an unwillingness to risk a clash between the newcomer and the established members of the staff from whom he must look for help in his work. This, in turn, arises from a recognition that the counsellor's knowledge of individual pupils will probably become more extensive than that of other teachers in the school, that he will be the recipient of confidences which may even involve members of the staff and that he will have direct access to the Head on matters which may never be fully discussed with anyone else. Unless this discretion exists the counsellor may well not be able to command the trust of the pupils whose problems it is his duty to solve.

There are, however, on the staffs of all secondary schools men and women possessing a well-balanced outlook towards young people who enjoy the respect of their colleagues and who, in addition, enjoy a relationship with the pupils which is recognised to be closer and more relaxed than that enjoyed by their colleagues. Some particularly harmonious counselling schemes have been developed in schools by the use of these members of staff. It is found that children frequently talk quite freely to them and, often unconsciously, reveal to them the factors in their lives which may be interfering with their full development. If the problem presented is a simple one it may be dealt with in the school. If, however, it is more complex the help of outside agencies may be needed. From such an organisation a wish will frequently arise that one member of the team should be released to undertake a university course. In these circumstances the teacher will be assured of acceptance by the staff as a whole on his return to the school to head the team.

It was against this background that the 'ad hoc' group conducted its discussions and recommended that a pilot course, to be attended mainly by Heads of Schools, should be run during the late autumn of 1967 and the spring and early summer of 1968. The conclusions jointly reached by members of this

course will be the subject of a second article.

The word 'counselling' has been used in this article not because it is regarded as ideal for the purpose, but because there appears at present to be no other term which so accurately describes the subject.

An Advisory/Counselling Service in Secondary Schools

Kathleen M. Voller

General Inspector of Education, Surrey County Council.

Suggestions made from a Pilot Course on Student Advice run in Surrey from November 1967 to May 1968 for fourteen Heads or Deputy Heads of Secondary Schools and one Vice Principal of a Technical College.

The growing size of secondary school communities and the impending raising of the school leaving age has brought into focus the need to consider most seriously whether enough is being done to ensure that the personal development of pupils who are not developing and maturing like the majority, and who could leave school as inadequate persons and remain inadequate members of society, should find a source of help in a recognised and organised service operating within the school system.

The need for such a service must be seen against the background of rapid change in all sections of human life. Young people are living in a society much less consistent and conformist than it used to be. Life outside school is more complicated, family life is unstable and the school community is itself becoming so large and the organisation so intricate, that it is difficult for some people to develop a sense of belonging, to identify themselves with any particular group, or to find time or opportunity to form a helping relationship with one or two adults.

Even if some pupils are fortunate enough to have the opportunity to use a teacher as a confidant there are a number who need more than the immediate word of reassurance and understanding that can be given during a teaching session. The teacher receiving the confidence may feel that he

has dealt with the situation inadequately and yet know no clearly defined line of communication to someone who has the necessary time and skill to assess a pupil's fundamental problem and the kind of help required. There is need for pupils to have someone who has time to listen, who is not too remote in the school hierarchy, and who is not too involved in making final decisions or recommendations about pupils. Some young people cannot manage on their own and may have no trusted adult to ask for help, so that ordinary everyday difficulties may accumulate and assume gigantic proportions.

We cannot afford to ignore the adverse effect of social problems and group and individual difficulties on progress in learning. Also, it must be remembered that schools are now seen by society as the means of helping young people to be good citizens.

Increasing demands are being made on teachers as well as pupils. They are expected to keep abreast of all educational developments, to enable their pupils to achieve greater success in learning, and to initiate and support a wide range of out of school activities. Teachers are fully occupied with their teaching assignments so that, even though they may become aware of the danger signals of personal stress, they have no time and perhaps no inclination or skill to deal with pupils needing help.

Members of the pilot course on Student Advice in the Secondary School are unanimous in their opinion that it is essential to provide a service for pupils that will help them personally, in their educational studies and in their choice of career. It is suggested that this should be known at the School Advisory/Counselling Service. As there will need to be special emphasis on the provision of personal help the word 'counselling' is included in the name of the service, but any reference to student, pupil or child is omitted from the description. This should be understood to be a service based on the school, serving its members, drawing in contributory agencies and reaching out to make contacts where necessary.

It would be unfortunate if an advisory/counselling service were to be imposed on a school. At the present time, the most likely beginning will be for the advisory/counselling service to fit itself to the

people and circumstance of the school, growing out of the existing structure and personnel.

The work of this service is envisaged as preventive rather than curative with the aim of providing an early warning system, identifying problems in the early stages, taking preventive measures where possible, and so avoiding the development of many of the more serious and disturbing problems. At the same time, the sensitivity and experience of the counsellor would result in early enough consultation with experts from the Child Guidance and other Welfare Services outside the school.

An advisory/counselling service should be able to co-ordinate the use of work done by form teachers, often known as 'pastoral care' and, at the same time, encourage teachers engrossed in their subject work to appreciate their pupils as individuals with their own peculiar strengths and weaknesses.

It would be unfortunate if this service was thought of as dealing only with difficult pupils, and especially unfortunate if it was allowed to become the dumping ground of those whose disturbing behaviour and poor work made them 'the unwanted'.

The over-riding aim would be to help the pupil to know himself, his strengths and weaknesses, and to have the confidence to make his own choices.

Recognising problems and dealing with them is part of life; if we constantly avoid them we do not grow. An advisory/counselling service should be able to contribute towards the positive personal growth of all pupils in the school.

An advisory/counselling service could act as a co-ordinating agency for the work done in connection with careers, educational problems and decisions, and personal counselling. Schools already have developed systems for giving vocational and educational guidance, but recognised and organised plans for helping with personal problems are in their infancy. It is in this area that most effort is needed. As the size of schools grow, the work in all three facets of the service will increase. In large secondary schools it is likely that three people will be involved in vocational, educational and personal counselling, one of them leading the team. Such a leader would be expected to co-ordinate the work

of these areas, to collect information, to see that relevant facts are recorded, to disseminate information where appropriate, and to be directly responsible to the Head.

There is a very strong feeling that this service should be organised and operate as an integral part of the school. Heads will need to create a receptive climate within their school and to present the aims of the service clearly and realistically. It will take time for the school personnel to accept and understand the workings of this new addition to the school, and it would be disastrous if the Head became impatient and tried to hurry the pace of development. Members of staff will need help in understanding what part they can play, and in appreciating that their own contribution will be essential for the success of this service. Nothing should dilute the influence of the form teacher and there will have to be clearly recognised lines of communication between the teaching staff and members of the advisory/counselling service so that each can make his contribution towards the welfare of the pupils.

Incidental discussion and exchange of information will be valuable but a form of school care committee or case conference would give members of staff not wholly engaged in the service an opportunity to make a contribution at appropriate times.

The advisory/counselling service will need an adequate timetable allocation and must not be allowed to become a hole and corner affair that is pushed in, with other activities, at dinner time breaks.

A department making a significant contribution in a large secondary school receives recognition in the form of a Head of Department or Post of Responsibility allowance for the leader, and so he and his department have status within the school hierarchy. The importance of the advisory/counselling service will hold more significance for teachers if career prospects can be established. The leader of the team will need to have a status comparable with departmental heads, and others involved might hold lesser posts of responsibility.

It is equally important that neither the service nor the people involved in it should be allowed to operate in such an amateurish way that the advisory/counselling work is discredited.

A communication system will need to be devised so that all concerned with any one pupil know how to pass on any relevant information so that they can be kept informed of the progress of the advisory/counselling work. It will also be necessary to work out a simple system of recording information. These systems should be acceptable to and understood by all members of staff. The extent of information about individual pupils that can be given to teachers will have to be the decision of the counsellor in consultation with the Head. But it is important that staff should not feel excluded or unwanted. Pupils make different kinds of relationships with different members of staff. Each contact has its value and some are more developed than others. It would be unfortunate if the presence of a counsellor in the school diminished such natural contacts. On the other hand, a counsellor could become the co-ordinator and disseminator of useful information that teachers having such relationships might find it prudent to offer.

The dual role of teacher-counsellor may not prove to be acceptable because of the time consuming nature of the work and because of the possible conflict in pupils' reaction to the two roles. As the service develops within a school, it is expected that the advisor/counsellor will spend most or all of his time at this work.

It will be the counsellor's job to collect all available information about the pupils who come to him for help. His position in the birth order and the happenings in his family, the medical reports, his progress in learning, his relationships with his peers and adults, and so on, are all relevant information about a pupil that the counsellor needs to know.

The work of an advisory/counselling service will result in a considerable amount of recording. It is not easy to devise a system that allows for sufficient detail for individual circumstances and yet is acceptable to advisor/counsellors in general. The most useful method was considered to be a folder to hold notes of interview and other confidential information, with a front page containing basic factual information about a pupil. It is important to put individual interviews on record, whether with pupils or parents. The information may seem to be of little significance at the time but, if consulted at a later stage, may give a clue to the real problem. It

is also useful to collect information from other people who meet and know the pupil and his family.

Whatever system is used it is essential that it is readily available while preserving confidentiality. If records are to be significant, they have to be kept alive and fluid, and final assessments need to be delayed as long as possible, especially those concerning character and personality. Any recording system must allow for the variability of the reactions of staff and pupils to each other, and allow for regressive as well as progressive development.

All information collected about a pupil and his family must be absolutely confidential and it is for the Head and counsellor to decide what information can be made available to members of teaching staff and others concerned about the pupil's welfare. The preservation of confidentiality is one of the most important issues of advisory/counselling work.

Not everyone wishing to work in a school advisory/counselling service will be suitable. The personal counselling aspect of the work is particularly demanding and requires specific personal qualities and skills.

Some teachers who 'look' right for the job may not be sufficiently stable personalities themselves to be able to withstand the personal demands that will be made upon them and some, without realising it, may too readily get involved in other people's difficulties as a way of avoiding their own. Opinion is strongly in favour of a person who is married and has a family.

There are teachers who have personal qualities which may remain hidden in the day-to-day routine of the school. As it is a strong possibility that the first counsellors will be recruited from within the school's own staff it would be helpful if the Head or Deputy got to know the potential counsellor well enough to recognise those qualities which, if mobilised, could be an asset for the job.

It will be important to keep in mind that the essential function of a personal counsellor is to listen rather than to advise. Consequently, he should have a warm, accepting personality and a

genuine respect for others. He must act in complete confidentiality and learn to communicate and receive communications from others in terms they can understand. It would be a most unreal person who did not have some selfish motives for doing this work. The important thing is that he should know himself well enough to keep his selfish interests under control.

It is recognised that such qualities and skills listed are rarely found in one person but a teacher with the right potential will develop many of these qualities as he grows with the job.

Anyone taking a responsible post in a school advisory/counselling service will need additional training. Skills are needed for this work which are not practised in the usual teaching situation and are not part of initial teacher training. For example, it is most important that the teacher-counsellor should learn the techniques of good interviewing procedure, that he should understand his function in personal counselling, and be able to conduct case conferences.

As more schools want to know about advisory/counselling services and to get some training for teachers selected for this work, it becomes essential to consider what courses are available.

The present training facilities are centred at the universities of Exeter, Reading and Keele, but their total annual output will not meet the needs of schools now wanting to establish an advisory/counselling service. These courses of training involve a full year's absence from school, and the present economic restrictions make it extremely difficult for schools to release teachers, and for LEAs to support enough teachers each year.

Programmes of in-service training are needed to supplement the national courses.

In the first instance it will be most important for teachers undertaking in-service training to be the nominees of the Heads of schools intending to establish an advisory/counselling service. In fact, a preliminary course for Heads, themselves, such as the Pilot course run in Surrey from November 1967 to May 1968, could be a valuable introductory measure in preparing a suitable climate of opinion within the schools.

In my opinion this is no mean achievement of a course of training of this kind.

How did the Course achieve this end? Mainly I would suggest, in its combination of academic and practical work. On the academic side, a wide variety of subjects were presented to us via lectures and discussions. The most important of these were sociology, human growth and development and casework theory. Sociology I found immensely stimulating, frightening at times in the conclusions I felt tempted to draw, and involving direct conflict with many of the tenets of psychoanalytical thought and casework practice. It was little use comforting oneself with the dictum that all problems are part social, part psychological. I feel there is an inescapable tension between the two sciences which the course brought out clearly. Psychoanalytical concepts tended to evoke rebellion at first. They seemed to stem from a rather esoteric discipline and I felt too (rather subjectively) that I was expected to accept them as the sole way of interpreting reality. I had given up a way of life and academic discipline that had put itself forward as the real conclusive interpreter of reality. Having rejected this in an effort to reach a more flexible, less definitive, less constricting discipline, was I to be subjected to something similar? Growing self-awareness, having been "allowed" to question and explore, has to some extent modified my approach to psychoanalytical concept with their implications in casework practice; I have experienced some of their truth within myself as well as in the behaviour of other people, although some doubts and reservations remain. I still experience conflicts between sociological and psychoanalytical concepts.

The practical part of the course, spent mainly in Children's Departments, while providing opportunity to apply theory to practice, also saw a growing awareness of one's self, one's own strengths and weaknesses, one's dominant areas of feeling, accompanied by a comparable awareness of other people. As the course progressed theory and practical work became more integrated and more meaningful; personal tutor and practical work supervisor were seen more to be engaged in the same pursuit. In the end we were, I felt, a unity.

I did not reach this objective without many internal crises. Growing self-awareness and insight was often painful. Parts of myself which had remained well hidden came to the light and not always as the more pleasant aspects. The acquisition of the casework techniques and a professional role I found initially very threatening. Here was I, a man, being asked to act and think in what I regarded as a purely feminine sort of way. (I can recall describing casework as 'the pursuit of the middle-class American woman'). This I considered to be a direct assault on my masculinity and, looking back it was the supreme crisis. To reconcile myself to my own bisexuality was for me a slow but vitally important factor.

On the intellectual plane also I was forced into a source of crisis. The presentation of the academic course material was, I am sure, intended to sow doubt as much as to inform and enlighten. I had already waved goodbye to the certainties of one academic discipline; I was now being subjected to a series of further uncertainties. Perhaps there was too much fluidity in the situation and I caught up in a flood of universal doubt.

It was in meeting these crises and in many other areas of learning, that one experiences the benefit of tutor and practical-work supervisor. Another valuable source of help and support was the group influence of one's own fellow students, being able to share one's doubts and anxieties both on the formal level in seminars or in more casual social acquaintance.

One adverse criticism of the Course, one shared generally by the student group, was the absence of any formal study of groups and group work. It was felt that this could be a serious deficiency in view of the increase in emphasis on this kind of social casework.

However it is obvious that no Course can provide everything. Yet this course has given what I consider to be a very adequate preparation for my future work as a Child Care Officer and the stimulus to go on thinking and exploring within the field of social work.

Paul Keogh — R.C. Priest prior going on C.C.O course
Attended the 1966-68 Child Care Officer Course at
North Western Polytechnic, London.

Editorial

At the invitation of our Editor I am delighted to have this opportunity of giving some account of an educational event which occurred in Vienna between October 9th-12th 1968. It took the form of a conference, organised jointly by the Pedagogical Institute of Vienna and the German speaking section of the World Education Fellowship. Its purpose was twofold, to serve as a focal point for the centenary celebrations of the Pedagogical Institute and to provide an occasion for educationists to discuss the place of the teacher in an industrialised society. Needless to say, the former were as gaily and generously conducted as the latter was gravely debated.

It was my privilege to give the opening talk on "New Perspectives in Education", the need, in Professor Boulding's striking phrase, "for human beings to change their ways of thinking more in the next twenty five years than they have done in the previous twenty five thousand years." The second lecture was delivered by Professor Tausch of the University of Hamburg; he spoke on psychological conditions necessary for the realisation of three fundamental aims in the relationship between teacher and pupils. These were the individual freedom of each child, discipline appropriate to acquiring knowledge and a sense of individual and collective achievement. Then came a talk by Dr. Schnell, Director of the Pedagogical Institute in Vienna: in this he considered how educational institutions inside what today must inevitably to some degree be a bureaucratic society could nevertheless preserve their own flexibilities and freedoms. Finally, after a commemorative appreciation of Dittes and Wittmann, two nineteenth century pioneers of Austrian teacher training, Professor Meyer of the University of Heidelberg spoke about group work in schools. He illustrated his talk with television extracts from a series of studies he and his colleagues had made regarding this practice in the actual classroom situation. From there it was possible to obtain a good idea of just how valuable such visual evidence could be in the training of students.

Immediately following the conference there was a meeting of the German speaking section of the World Education Fellowship at which its new

constitution was approved and its officers for the coming three years elected. I was especially glad to be present first, because the occasion gave proof of the success of Herr Erdelt in having fanned the WEF embers into flame after three years of strenuous efforts, and secondly because under the presidency of Professor Rohrs of Hamburg and a strong supporting team of Heidelberg educationists as well as the ongoing concern of Austrian and Swiss educationists, WEF prospects in these regions are brighter than they have been for many a long day.

James L. Henderson.

Editorial Notes

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Fashions in subjects

I was talking to a young man who has just come down from a university having done brilliantly in history and then continued with some research in the field of politics. He is now in search of a job. When I said that to find one should be easy he remarked, "My subject is out of fashion. Sociology yes but not history. Less teaching posts in history are now advertised than in many other subjects." I have checked his statement and find it astonishingly true even despite the warning of C. H. Hannam, and the appetite of the young for details of both world wars and for Victoriana and the work of Aubrey Beardsley, among much else including Roman villas, archaeological "digs" and Egyptian art. All these are enthusiasms that can be enjoyed alone and sociology has another emphasis.

Talking of sociology and social work an interesting confrontation occurred recently when a further education course in psychology was started with a group who had worked for about two years with another tutor. This session a psychiatric social worker undertook to take the group. She was connected with mental health and this is mental health year. She warned the group not to talk about a "looney bin" or a "madhouse" or even a "cretin" and used many of the modern locutions aimed at not hurting patients. One mother of teenage sons spoke up and said that the adolescent generation call each other "cretin" or "spastic" and often refer to "looney bin" and this excessive care over names was out of date. Do we train social workers to be too rarified and intense?

Soon after this a group of young people were discussing an international friendship social at which two were to lead some folk singing. One said she liked dancing with Africans and a fair young man asked "What can I do when she dislikes me because of my colour?" The only West Indian present thought this very funny. This is the modern climate and I wonder whether younger patients find the masking of

plain terms for mental illness a trifle “plastic”. Recently a boy with brain damage was sent to the school psychiatrist and he is reported to have been asked “How did you get on?” and to have replied “I met a bad psychiatrist. That’s all.”

Perhaps we should think about fashions in approach. Whitehead talked of immense provincialisms of place and time. Are we caught in just that and would a little emphasis on history restore our sense of humour? Idiom like fashion is evanescent and important, and it holds newness in every moment. It also starts from the street corner and works up to the professor. Other sciences can learn from language.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Chainless Mind

Malcolm Caldwell and James L. Henderson
Hamish Hamilton 30s.

A study of Resistance and Liberation, this book is one of a series of four published under the editorship of Dr J. L. Henderson. The method in both parts of this volume is similar — a line of argument illustrated by copious and often extensive extracts from other publications. These are listed at the end of each chapter. In general, I do not like this form of Instant History. It seems to leave one even more at the mercy of a historian’s selectivity than one is when the whole matter has been mediated through his mind. This is a personal view, with which many will disagree, and in the section dealing with Resistance the method works very well. Succinct statement of objective is followed by excerpts which are in themselves exciting, and which give a sense of urgency to the theme. Successive chapters describe Resistance in France and Yugoslavia, in Germany, and Resistance elsewhere since 1945. The chapter on Germany is illuminating.

Perhaps the main interest attaches to Chapter 3, in which note is taken, for example, of the Civil Rights struggle in the USA; Conscientious Objection to War, Danilo Dolci’s crusade. Three strands are closely examined — the East German and Hungarian Risings as illustrating resistance to Communist forms of totalitarianism, the Civil Rights struggle with its elements of racialism, and Conscientious Objection “because it bears witness to the most extreme form of Resistance to War”. The point is made that ‘an essential quality in Resistance. . . is passionate protest against the violation of the sanctity of individual conscience’. The whole section moves swiftly and persuasively.

Part II, Liberation, struck me as less successful. It deals with Colonialism, Nationalism, War and Revolution, War and Independence, and Liberation and the American Empire — all current and pressing — depressing — phenomena. It presents a sorry and sullied picture, perhaps because Liberation in the main deals with long-term, Resistance with short-term, burdens?

Admitted that Colonialism, Nationalism and the many other forms of exploitation under which man has been organised have their sordid side, it cannot be accepted that they are wholly and deliberately evil. Part II gives the impression that they are. It is as though Part I set out to justify, Part II to condemn. But Part II also warns. And the warning of what the future may hold is more important than the condemnation. It is, moreover, a warning that should be heeded — in the East no less than in the West, by all the diverse races, religions and regions of the world.

The authors are successful in illustrating man’s indomitable spirit, and in effecting the liberation of the reader’s resistance to passive acceptance of the printed word. They provoke. This is what Historians should do.

J. B. Annand.

On the Threshold

Paul Norris

Geoffrey Chapman: 35s.

Some books tell you nothing about their author; others reveal him all too clearly. Mr Norris emerges from these pages as no radical theologian but widely interested in art, history and literature — and especially in teaching. The material he offers has plainly developed from his own classroom experience which makes it the more useful to others.

His theme is the People of God. If this title is rightly used by Christians of themselves then how do they resemble a nation? Under the headings, ‘The Origin of the People of God’ and ‘The People of God Finds Fulfilment’ the author outlines approaches to the Old and New Testaments, relating each to such questions as: What makes a people? How does a people express its unity? Can love be a force in politics? The final section explores the relationship between the Christian community and the culture in which it is set, touching on (to mention a few topics) racialism, pacifism, sex, and other religions.

The theological tone is enlightened but traditional Roman Catholicism, although the treatment is as different as can be imagined from old-style catechetics. Even when he deals with doctrines that will be rejected by other Christians Mr Norris arouses interest by his method of approach. Again and again, examples of visual presentation, stimulating suggestions for pupils’ work, insights relating what might be thought of as diverse material impel the reader to ‘try it out in the classroom.’ This is an exciting book. Teachers of English and History as well as of RE will find it crammed with ideas, scrupulously documented but never oppressively detailed. As an aid to fifth and sixth form work, one book like this, ranging over so many disciplines and interests, provoking and stimulating, is worth a dozen assorted textbooks of the formal and trivial type so often associated with religious education. At 35s. it is a bargain.

Peter Cousins

Children in Care vol. 1.

Disturbed Children vol. II.

Tod, R. J. N. (Editor)

Papers on Residential Work; Longmans, 1968. 12s. 6d.

These companion volumes contain a collection of papers on residential work, one of which appeared in the **New Era** (No. 8, 1963), compiled from British and American journals during the past decade. They are intended for students on basic and advanced courses in this field, and will be of great help too to Children’s Committees, as well as to members of child guidance teams who have not had experience of residential work.

Both volumes, in the opinion of the reviewer, are extremely sound, and contain a wealth of opinion and experience which needs to be stated, although much of volume 1 is not newer than the work of Ian Suttie of the 1930s. A distillation of knowledge of organizational methods, as much as of theory, gained

from people working on the job (most of whom are now engaged in training or as advisers) is here set down on paper, and in volume II in an esoteric form.

Trasler, for example, respectful of Bowlby, makes the point that followers of his school and of Goldfarb and of Spitz had not fully recognized that when emotional damage occurs after residential placement it is not necessarily the 'consequence of institutional care *per se*, but the result of providing an inappropriate human environment for a child convalescing from a particularly traumatic experience' (I, 19).

What is an appropriate environment, and how it may be provided, is the principal subject of these books. James Anthony urges that a particular child's behaviour should be seen from a broad sociological viewpoint. He describes one who was buffeted and tossed between his mother's frustration and his teacher's feelings of inferiority. 'At first sight the child's difficulties seem to occupy the centre of the situation, but this is merely because our professional eyes are focussed upon him. The mother's aggression emasculates the boy, and the teacher's anxieties masculinize him. We often tend to use other people's children to act out our problems' (I, 61).

In another chapter he shows the limitations of such one way relationships whether conscious or not. Reciprocity between adults and the children they care for not only saves the former from being drained emotionally, but presents the latter with opportunities for acts of redemption (II, 115) or reparation. In either case, adult or child must be provided with a means of dealing with his guilt.

Similarly Mrs Docker-Drysdale explains that a 'failure in adaptation' by an adult (caused, say, through his or her inability to understand something) may be used by the child if, amongst other things, the adult's guilt does not lead him to rush to make restitution (II, 59). The failure can be used by the child to extend his essential differentiation, and to learn that apparent disasters, or seeming betrayals, are not necessarily malevolent.

Insight into these matters is a function to be promoted by the therapeutic of clinic team working in a residential setting. Much can be done in training too, as Mr Tod himself points out, 'to add disciplined knowledge' to natural awareness which then provides a 'reservoir of established concepts and tested experience to draw upon when the inevitable disappointments or setbacks occur' (I, xii).

The regime itself however may be designed to afford maximum self-help by members of staffs. Mrs. Drysdale's own work at The Mulberry Bush is a demonstration of this. But in these books it is Dr. Marjorie Franklin who elaborates upon this aspect of some form of community government, which she regards as essential for young people of over about eleven with whom social therapy is undertaken. 'An observant adult participant at these community meetings can gain an insight into the more healthy and mature side of these children and their often surprising good sense; such insight may prevent the over-emphasis on the immaturity that is also characteristic of maladjusted persons' (II, 19, 20). That is to say it may help the adult to understand that a healthy child, which the maladjusted will become, needs to feed on demands and human situations which are realistic, and indeed which do not mask the tragic element in human life.

In space of a review it is only possible to welcome among the many themes referred to the treatment of

the merits of a residential institution. For even Winnicott in his Introduction perpetuates the notion that children 'are adversely affected . . . by the simple fact of being away from home' (II, vii). Studt and Franklin think otherwise. The former considers the residential advantages under four heads — 1) that it is less demanding emotionally on the child and gives the possibility of a professional counter transference, 2) that life among his peers may enhance his satisfactions and reduce tensions, 3) that the structure can provide a benign external fabric, and 4) that the design of living can be varied. (II, 3-7).

This leads to the conclusions not only that the group-living-tool must be given institutional status (Redl), but that the principles and methods used in environmental therapy can to some extent be taught (Franklin, II, 14), as in former days learning theories have been taught to generations of teachers. The practical day to day skills required to help children in their emotional development, and their rationale, have been considerably furthered thanks to the competent selection and editing by Mr R. J. N. Tod.

Anthony Weaver
Principal Lecturer in Education,
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former Secretary of UK section
of Fédération Internationale
des Communautés d'Enfants.

'Parents and Teachers'

Lawrence Green
Allen & Unwin Ltd. 1968
120 pp. 21s.

'The most vital factor in a child's home is the attitude to school, and all that goes on there, of his mother and father'. Plowden Report, para. 1235.

Mr Lawrence Green's admirable little book offers a practical and illustrative exposition of this text. Among the recommendations of the Plowden Report, those that are supported by its 3rd and 4th chapters (Children and their Environment. Participation by Parents) need not await financial provision in order to be implemented.

The author describes how and why he set about bringing home and school into co-operative relationship in the kind of urban area that in terms of Plowden criteria would probably qualify for educational priority treatment. The social conditions in the neighbourhood of his primary school make his initiatives and pioneering work all the more significant.

His point of departure is an act of faith: unlike at least some early pioneers in this field, his conception of the school is not that of an 'oasis of good living' in a hostile environment. The school is outward-looking, 'a base not a barracks', and explores its community in search of educative elements. This involves teachers as learners getting to know both the physical and human environment.

A natural and obvious channel of relations between the school and its community is through the parental body, and the link is woven of innumerable strands, the parents of individual children. Hence the fundamental factor is not the formation of a parent-teacher association — that may follow in due course — but the delicate triangle of parent-teacher-child relationships. This takes us into the field of communication.

In my view one of the most noteworthy aspects of the achievement described is the two-way communication established by a new style of report, giving the

parent a picture of the child in school as a person, and asking for parental help and comment. The effect on parental attitudes to school is illustrated by case studies.

The other most interesting development, or should I say departure, is the home interview. How this is engineered is convincingly described, and the recorded interviews in the home make fascinating reading. However it is made clear that this marks not the initial but a well-developed stage of co-operation. It calls for exceptional tact and insight on the part of the teacher, as well as response on the part of the parent. The Plowden Report is cautious in suggesting that teachers should visit the homes of pupils. Unless the way is well-prepared, the result might work against relationships within the 'delicate triangle'.

A happy feature of this book is that it is aimed at the parent as well as the teacher, and offers suggestions to both that will help them to meet half way. Nevertheless the initiative lies with the school.

Raymond King

Two Quiet Lives David Cecil Constable

This book is about Dorothy Osborne and her life in the seventeenth century and Thomas Gray and his life roughly a hundred years later in the eighteenth. Theirs are the two quiet lives. The author says 'Both were shy, anxious, pensive, personalities, with a rich inner life and few but intense affections, who, inspired by an ineradicable distrust of the world, strove, with varying success, to retire from it to a life exclusively personal, private contemplative.' He adds 'My book, then, aspires to be at once an account of two remarkable persons, a study of a certain phase of human nature and, finally, a picture of private life as lived in two contrasting periods.'

The book is written with such refreshing clarity of style that one feels to quote the writer is the best review. He illuminates both periods. We meet Dorothy as part of a society where 'good breeding seemed to be a quality of the soul'. This society threatens her romantic fulfilment in marriage with Sir William Temple, and when finally the obstacles are removed and she is married, life with him threatens her privacy. Her words 'shall we ever be so happy,' express a prophetic doubt. In fact her letters give life and personality to a bygone age.

Thomas Gray lived his individual and introverted life in a later century when 'an extroverted, common sense view' prevailed and this society 'believed deeply in form.' Thomas Gray went to Eton helped by an uncle and made there a lasting circle of friends including Horace Walpole who 'spent time in reading poems and romances and still more in talking to his friends.' This is interesting as a fact about a public school's effect upon a sensitive individual. Another interesting and important event in the life of Thomas Gray is the invitation he gets from Horace Walpole to make the grand tour with him through France and Italy. The author says 'Horace Walpole combined in an unusual way the gusto and curiosity needed to enjoy life with the judgement and self-discipline to regulate it.' Gray 'laughed at Walpole's jokes. And so did Walpole at his. Perhaps this was the strongest bond between them.' He also valued Gray's poetry and introduced it to a world lacking many poets. Though despite this, there were difficult moments during their journeyings in Italy. Gray did not enjoy the social life of Florence as his friend did. . .

The study of these two human beings both of whom were 'noticeably deficient in these social virtues by which the world professes to set such store' prompts us to correct the bias we currently have in favour of social integration, or to widen its scope. The author suggests that 'it was because their hearts were so civilised that they found the world so barbarous.' A contemporary situation indeed.

Elsie Fisher

CORRESPONDENCE

St. Croix,
U.S. V.I.

Dear Miss Fisher,
Miss Grace Stanistreet drew my attention to an article on 'Creative Education and the Musician' by Antony Brackenbury in the June issue of New Era.

I cannot refer to specific paragraphs that troubled me because I do not have the issue at hand. But — after a very quotable beginning Mr Brackenbury went on to describe activities at the music school founded by Mr Yehudi Menuhin. He seems to equate creativity with excellence. That Mr Menuhin created an unusual music school cannot be doubted. That children put into an environment of constant music making and thinking, must become well-rounded musicians is true. That contact with the great performers is bound to raise their standard in judging performances, is also true. However, that an excellent performer makes a good teacher is open to question — the converse can be true and often is.

But is all this 'creativity'. There is no instinct, no intuition required to develop the skills needed for modern day virtuosity. For that many long and arduous hours, over many years are needed. In this area it is the teacher who must be creative, who needs to find or create appropriate means for developing the individual. Neither this nor how the children are encouraged to be creative in their own right was mentioned in the article. Another point that troubled me was the statement, in effect, that only a small number of children are accepted because of a possible glut (my word) on the market.

I believe a) that there are never too many well trained, highly skilled, well disciplined people, and b) no matter how many one trains only a few are destined to become first rank performers or first rank teachers. There is much more to it than performance skills and techniques. I also believe that each human being has within himself the potential for being creative. This needs to be called upon, needs to be used, needs to be encouraged to grow and blossom.

Nowhere in the article does Mr Brackenbury mention how this phase in music learning, so necessary for the making of an artist, is developed at Mr Menuhin's school, nor how this is used to develop him as a human being.

Sincerely yours,
Helen Lanfer,
40 West 86 Street, N.Y.N.Y. 10024 U.S.A.

Instructor of music, Adelphi University Children's
Center for Creative Arts, Garden City, New York.
Director of Teacher Training Program Hebrew Arts
School for Music and Dance, New York City, N.Y.

Dear Editor,
Mental Health and the School

The mental health of the child and the teacher is of vital importance both to the individual and to the community. But need it necessitate the creation of a vast career-structure of 'experts' (all much more highly paid than the teacher) who must be 'consulted' about the mental ill health of the few children and fewer teachers who show signs of abnormal strain.

Such strain is of course inherent in our so-called civilisation which both requires and produces casualties. The 'experts' in question can do no more than alleviate **symptoms**; the **causes** lie far deeper—in such evils as over-crowding both at home and in school, indoctrination by mass media; political double-think and double-talk; the selfish enjoyment of affluence while others are known to be starving; and the appalling waste of human and material resources on preparation for mankind's mutual self-destruction.

None of these or similar evils can be dealt with, radically, by consultants or counsellors, whose counsellings are, in fact, the community's voice of despair.

Neither can the teacher's knowledge and authority be successfully supplemented—still less replaced—by those of well-paid ancillaries in pursuit of a career.

Yours sincerely,
Charles Samuel Green (ENEF)

We are glad of the opportunity to print two speakers' notes from the timely one day conference on Notions of Authority organised in June last at King Alfred's School, London NW 11. They add to the questions raised by Lois Child in this issue.

Speakers Notes

1. Abbreviated Version of a talk about **Limits of Freedom** by Alan Humphries, M.A. (Oxon) Headmaster, King Alfred School.

As part of our conference on the general nature of Authority I have set myself the limited question of 'how far towards total freedom can those in authority go?' or, even more starkly, 'how much freedom?'. I cannot but comment at the outset on the topicality of even this limited question. Recent difficulties met first I believe in Berkely and since then in an increasing number of Universities and Art Schools the world over indicates that we cannot possibly escape the question. Equally I cannot but comment that the situation might well never have arisen in the way it did had the authorities been more concerned with the question; concerned in the way that all those schools working under the umbrella label

'progressive' have been over the last half century.

My basic premise is that fundamental to the educational process is a right relationship between teacher and learner and the question that follows is how much freedom is necessary for the building and maintaining of that right relationship. Both extremes are patently wrong; no freedom inhibiting creativity and being conducive to rebellion, no authority leading to anti-social behaviour and, most importantly, to a lack of security, especially in the very young. It follows, therefore, that if both extremes are wrong there is a right somewhere between them.

Few seconds of thought are needed, however, to realise that this logical pursuit of the mean cannot lead to a satisfactory answer. There cannot be a right answer to the question of 'how much freedom?' which would hold for all institutions in all circumstances. The history of the progressive movement in schools has seen a shifting of that right position. The early progressives saw freedom as therapeutic in itself; against a social background which was authoritarian and restrictive, they rightly advocated freedom both as a cure and as a preventive. As the social background has moved towards permissiveness with the characteristic exaggerated swing of the pendulum so the schools have modified their position to a more balanced one. The **amount** of freedom has varied with the circumstances.

I would not be happy, however, merely to leave the question as unanswerable. As the importance of 'how much' dwindles, so the importance of another aspect emerges and that aspect is 'what for?'. The Secretary of State for Education recently said that freedom is not an end in itself but is a starting point for positive progress. I feel that the fight for freedom in the past has all too often taken the form of 'freedom from'—freedom from fear, freedom from want. Important as this undoubtedly has been it would seem to me that the key to that right relationship I referred to lies in 'freedom to do'. Freedom is the starting point or is worthless. Freedom is constructive. Freedom is the catalyst. The real job of the teacher starts at this point and his skill should be in leading the pupil to the best possible use of his freedom.

'How much' is certainly answerable, and would provide the material to be developed as another aspect of this conference's theme, the thesis of which surely would be that the role of authority is to create, maintain and defend the freedom from which real education starts.

II. Distorted Image

A. B. Archer, B.A., Dip.Ed.,
Headmistress King Alfred's School.

There should be a category of words defined in the dictionary as potentially explosive — handle with care! The list would probably require editing every few years as current fashions of thought were outgrown but I suspect that one of the perennials would be that harmless and necessary abstract noun 'authority' which today arouses as much heat in higher academic circles as it once did in the self-absorbed world of the progressive schools.

On the principle that even if we can't agree it's helpful to know what we are fighting about the following definition might clear enough space to give us a meeting ground. Authority — the permission accorded by one group or individual to another group or individual to give orders in any situation in which both are involved. Please note that I have specifically avoided drawing any distinction between the kind of situation where A obtains B's obedience by force overt or implicit and that in which there is an amicable recognition by both that in this particular set of circumstances A is better fitted than B to make decisions. Take it one further. When we talk of 'an authority' we mean someone who has become recognised as an expert in his field and might be expected to know a good deal more about it than the average person. Whether or not this gives him a better right to speak on his subject than anyone else might make interesting discussion material for a philosophy seminar but it does give others a comprehensible reason for listening. There is a lot to be said for learning by doing but if your chosen topic happens to include pyrotechnics you are likely to learn more happily from someone who knows

the properties of gunpowder than by dabbling with potassium nitrate and sulphur in the back parlour.

A society with fairly stable patterns of authority is likely to reflect this stability in the province of education and in our social history the implicit connection between 'an authority' and 'in authority' has been accepted with very little dissent until fairly recently. Granted it is difficult for young children to present any really effective opposition to an idea held almost unanimously by the adult section of their community even if it occurs to them that someone, somewhere, is being got at. But when the adults start to question, challenge and generally make hay of the traditional hierarchies of authority the ensuing uncertainty spreads to all ages and groups and we in education have to make a swift and unsentimental review of our assumptions.

Having concluded that whatever the purposes of education and the social framework in which it exists we are going to need people who are 'authorities on' and also (for particular purposes such as physical safety and psychological security) 'in authority' where do we go? Presumably we need people who, while being authorities on and capable of taking authority in the sense referred to above, are also able to establish and maintain genuine relationships with the young. It sounds simple enough and perhaps it would be in some societies. Unfortunately for teachers our ideas of authority figures are part of our cultural pattern and it is this which so often gets in the way.

Roles, in the social psychologists' terminology, determine to a great extent our conscious or unconscious expectation in our relationships. They form a kind of pattern into which we expect others to fit and even into which we would ourselves expect to fit. From early childhood through adolescence we respond to others and to situations according to expectations based on past experience. Once we have formed an idea about how something should be it becomes part of our pool of reference and is difficult to be aware of, let alone change. So, the parson's wife, the downtrodden husband, the patient Griselda can gradually obscure the real person until even they no longer know which is real and which is role.

Roles have, of course, been part of the equipment in schools for a long time and very useful too. If you can get your young to identify with the right roles, head boy, Pride of the Sixth, the Girl who Saved the School etc., you've gone a good way towards social control now and later. Sometimes they get the wrong idea and identify with the Terror of the Fourth; you can't always win.

When the logical educationalists of the twenties decided that legends and myths had no place in the upbringing of children they probably threw some very powerful pieces of social equipment out, along with the fairy-tale bath water.

One of the results of this game of role expectation is that it delays or even hinders the formation of relationships. We don't see X as a person, we see him as the bank-manager, the policeman, or the man who comes to look at the gas meter and only after that do we get to know the person behind the image. In the case of the teacher this process gets even more complicated by the fact that our basic father and mother figures become involved so we have at least two layers to get through before coming (if we ever do) to the person himself.

None of this would matter so much if our authority images of teachers were more attractive or, to put it bluntly, based on less repellant prototypes. Who in their senses would want to make a real relationship with Messrs. Brocklehurst and Squeers or have anything but a mild contempt for the depressing cavalcade of undervalued and exploited creatures who were misnamed 'governesses'? As for the terrifying female authority figures who dominated so much of our 19th Century literature, they would have frightened even Freud.

Things have changed a great deal in the last twenty years but you still meet parents who see a Head through the eyes of an apprehensive youngster and resent the fact without really knowing it.

The respective sex roles don't help either. We still haven't much idea as to whether women really are a different kind of animal from men, although it is fairly clear that if your tribal culture demands war-like tendencies in its

women and attributes what we think of as feminine traits to its men, both parties will develop the appropriate role responses in spite of the physical characteristics and child-bearing. Ever since St. Paul, and later St. Jerome, decided that women would be less troublesome if they were less attractive to men the virgin mother, who had after all very little to smile about, became the pattern of Christian womanhood. She stayed that way through the Middle Ages with depressing results, suffered a brief eclipse in the eighteenth Century, was revived most oddly by Victoria and, by a process of symbiosis, merged into the social image of a school-mistress which persisted until the second world war.

The long period of female subservience in economic and other fields has affected the way in which both girls and boys respond to the woman teacher. Boys can still be deeply affronted by being expected to accept a woman in authority and girls can be over-awed or disappointed when they confuse the male teacher with the dominating father figure.

Each generation of children takes some of these role images into adulthood with it and perpetuates their influence. Perhaps the time is coming when we can begin to perceive the complementary roles of men and women in terms which neither denigrate nor patronise either sex. We might then find it possible to establish teaching situations in which authority could be recognised and related to the needs of children and adults. . . and perhaps we could cross it off that list.

SOCIAL SERVICE PUBLICATION

HELP (a magazine available to subscribers and not on public sale published by Community Publications Group Limited, 2 Arundel Street, London, W.C. 2)

The idea of a magazine to enlighten the general public about situations and organisations which need help is splendid. If this was the aim of 'Help' magazine I would like to congratulate them. The layout and originality were praiseworthy. However, the content seemed somewhat clouded by a certain amount of 'plastic'. It may not be a magazine run by people who are concerned only with financial results though such people would make the most of the publication, but at the same time treat it as a thing which is presented to gain favour and by doing so also money. This impression given by the 'Glossy' appearance and some of the contents was one which needs to be disproved.

*Personal Experience in Counselling**

Eileen Eisenklam at present a student at University of London Institute of Education taking Diploma course in Adolescent Development.

Counselling is a new and growing profession in our secondary schools and much clarification of thought needs to be done now about its aims and problems. I have been employed by the Inner London Educational Authority as a Young Person's Advisor for nearly four years. The post was newly created in the school and it is this experiment in counselling which I now recount outlining the development of the work and lastly mentioning what I have felt the problems and aims of counselling to be in my experience.

The Young People's Advisory Service originated from a concern of a group of Care Committee workers in North Kensington ten years ago. Their interest lay in the welfare of young people who were leaving school at fifteen years, unskilled and immature, who were entering the adult world with little preparation for what lay ahead of them. Little was known about them once they had left school but early reports made by an experienced social worker viz. Mrs R. Blackler, the first YPA worker showed that 15% of young people in her secondary school, unknown to care committee workers, had needed some guidance and support during the transitional months.

My terms of reference on commencing work in 1964 were to establish a relationship with all early school leavers. Discussion groups were held during the young person's last term at school in curriculum time and two home visits were made, one before leaving school and the other two months later.

The school has academic, commercial and other courses and it has recently formed a new Home Economics course, which is aimed to give a practical education to the slower learners. It is here in the lower academic streams that most early leavers are found. What characterises them most is their inarticulateness. As a result, it is difficult for them to achieve any recognised

*Report of a fascinating contribution to the NEF Working party in London on Pupil Counselling.

status in the school. A consistent lack of care among them can be a means of drawing attention. Absenteeism is high because they began to lose heart already around the age of thirteen years.

The girls can generally be divided into two types. There is the brazen so called over confident type from which the class leaders and the general disturbers are drawn. There will always be one or two who fall into this category and whose behaviour is hostile and aggressive. The second type are the apathetic ones who usually drop out of the struggle completely.

My activities consist of group discussions which are held one period a week with each group. Whilst the primary purpose of these discussions is to establish a personal relationship, two further uses have developed. Firstly, the discussion helps young people to improve their methods of communication and self expression. I discovered that they have two languages; the first one, the language of verbalising, is one which is superimposed on them. The second language is their own, and the only way I can describe this is to say that it consists of 'ums, ars', grunts and facial expressions and results in 'quick repartee' which is difficult to follow. The discussion groups are highly creative and as such need a lot of preparation on my part since the girls have so little to give and their power of concentration is very limited. If discussion dries up, disorder follows and the group is difficult to control by other than methods which must be avoided, to preserve the atmosphere of creative discussion.

Apart from these discussion groups I visit homes twice, before and after the girl leaves school and I act in the capacity of both liaison and interpreter. I give out a lot of information regarding evening classes and vocational courses. From my experience I find that unless the girls have support from home it seems impossible for them to muster enough self-discipline to attend the courses. As interpreter, my visits to the home are voluntary and I am welcomed in nearly all cases. I find little poverty. The interviews have generally got to compete against a TV background. This is not rudeness on the part of the parents since TV forms part of the texture of their life. Both parents and the girl face a crisis when the girl leaves school. Often the daughter has been

unable to live up to the aspirations of the parents and they must now face the reality of the situation and find an outlet in blaming the school system.

At the second interview, when the girl is at work, I become the link with the school. Although most girls settle and adapt in time to working conditions, they do miss school. There is, however, a small proportion who cannot settle — the immature, the insecure and those who have lacked parental care. A bad school attendance is generally followed by a bad work attendance. These girls cannot face the discipline of work, and this results in a frequent job change. Two or three girls are now seeking marriage at the age of sixteen years as an apparent escape from the discipline of life. The boys they want to marry are like themselves, immature, lacking in discipline and frequently out of work. Here we have the future problem family.

Although I am not a teacher, my relations with the staff have to be intimate. The Headmistress invited me into the school and she has been a veritable support. I now attend all relevant staff meetings. I also participate in the running of one aspect of the new Home Economics course and, in addition to the discussion group work and home visiting I act as liaison in arranging day release places for girls, with interested employers, Council of social service and the local council. In this way an atmosphere is fostered whereby the girl sees the last days in school as a bridge to her future life.

Although my work has been directed towards the young school leaver I have been asked to see girls over the whole spectrum of the school population. Referral has been through the Head or Year Heads but social workers working with the families at home have contacted me about specific girls. The problems the girls have presented seem to fall into three categories:

- a) Girls from large poor families, often among the eldest, sometimes over-burdened, who need the extra time and interest of a sympathetic adult during adolescence.
- b) Immigrant girls brought over to this country during adolescence who find it difficult to

reconcile the two cultures they are confronted with.

- c) Girls with emotional problems usually due to poor and broken family relationships.

A specific time is given to the girls and they see me weekly for as long as is necessary. I may need to see a girl for six months where a history of emotional deprivation and acute family disharmony emerges. I do not make home visits unless there is good reason that I should or if I am invited to do so. I work closely with the educational psychologist and fellow social workers whose help and support I need or where referral to another social agency may be necessary.

Recently my own thinking has synthesised about the problems the school counsellor has to face and I tentatively offer the conclusions below.

- a) Identification of the role of the counsellor.
- b) Choice of framework in which to work.
- c) Problems of confidentiality.
- d) Problems of communication.
- e) Teacher: counsellor relationship.

Time is needed to develop an identification of the role of the counsellor which will be recognised by staff, pupils, parents and other interested bodies. The counsellor stands in liaison between the school she serves and the mental health services (Educational psychologist, Child Guidance Clinic), welfare services (Child Care Dept., School Care Committee), and authority (Probation Officers Police, School Attendance Office). Counselling is more than 'welfare' and therefore does not bear the over-tones of charity that the name 'welfare' conjures up in the minds of many.

- b) The counsellor must choose a framework in which to work be it the teaching or social work field and this choice can only be made in the light of gathered experience. Techniques in counselling are at variance with teaching methods e.g. the counsellor should be permissive and non judgemental in attitude. Also individual

counselling can plunge the counsellor into relationships at depth which are beyond the normal teachers experience and training and knowledge of social casework techniques are very necessary.

c) Contact with one's fellow workers for discussion of mutual problems is vital and it has been my experience that the counsellor cannot work in isolation and needs much support both in school amongst senior staff and within her own chosen framework if she is to work effectively. It is also essential that she has a good knowledge of the social services and present social legislation covering young peoples' needs.

d) How far can the counsellor keep the counsellees confidence where there is a need for the other teachers to know the girls difficulties if they are to handle her effectively in the classroom situation? Obviously, some compromise has to be made here and it would be very helpful if time were given to the holding of the occasional selective staff meeting where girls experiencing difficulties could be mentioned and relevant material presented in the least harmful way to the girl's reputation.

e) At what point does a teacher make a referral? Clearly the most desired aim is for the counsellors role to be known throughout the school population and the girls all to be self-referred. However this ideal is utopian at present. Staff should be aware that the moment a girl is referred her problem becomes isolated and the girl will know this. For this reason the teacher should be helped to contain the girl with support for as long as possible. However, where the difficulties become more acute the counsellor should know when to take action for this is primarily a field of preventive social work.

f) The teacher: counsellor relationship is one which requires honesty, tact and an open mindedness if all avenues are to be explored. In the past, the teachers have been able to carry out their own pastoral care. With the advent of the large secondary schools and the increasing permissiveness of society the amount of pastoral care has greatly increased. The problems that a school throws up are the reflection of society's problems at large. I would like to draw an

analogy between the teacher: counsellor relationship with that of the doctor: medical social worker. The doctor in normal circumstances is adequate for the patients' need but there are times where some patients require time and resources beyond that normally given and it is here that the medical social worker is called in. The school counsellor is in the position where she can offer special skills, time and energy for work with school leavers and other specifically referred girls which relieves the teaching staff.

Finally I would suggest that the counsellor acts as liaison and interpreter between teachers, parents, social services and other outside bodies and because of her specific training, is free to concern herself with individual girls parents and home visiting. She has a particular and relevant part to play in the team setting of the modern comprehensive school.

The School Counsellor as a Personal Counsellor?

H. J. F. Taylor

Senior Educational Psychologist to the London Borough of Hillingdon

In a previous article¹ I suggested that one of the main problems for the future in school counselling was to attempt to define the role of the school counsellor rather more closely and precisely than seemed to be happening at the moment. Role confusion is inevitable in a young, newly-developing profession although some attempt needs to be made to remedy this state of affairs. In present training courses for school counsellors in this country three main roles appear, all of which involve a complex of skills different from the other, and covering different areas of knowledge. I suggested that any attempt to combine these three roles into one could well mean functioning in each role inexpertly enough. Perhaps such role differentiation may mean eventually that there will be three different kinds of school counsellor.

However this may be, one of those roles, that of personal counselling, seems to demand personal qualities in the counsellor which are not

perhaps needed to the same extent in either vocational guidance or careers counselling (called by Peter Daws² educational and vocational counselling or ev. counselling) or in test or psychometric counselling. Daws in this article draws a distinction between personal counselling and therapeutic counselling, although the dividing line seems to me a tenuous one. They both appear to be based on common principles.

A stress on vocational guidance (or V.G.) counselling or test counselling might well lead to less effective personal counselling. The relationships in personal counselling appear to be of a different kind from those in the other kinds of counselling. In personal counselling the relationship involves only two people, and is a close and intense one. The stress is on feelings and emotion rather than on facts and information. In V.G. and test counselling the counsellor is seen to be more of an authority figure, an expert, an adviser. In personal counselling the counsellor is not seen primarily as an authority figure who directs, guides, advises, tells, suggests and so on, although the setting will determine that some identification by the pupil of the counsellor with other roles must take place, albeit perhaps unwittingly. The counsellor is not primarily involved in answering questions, dispensing advice or information, or seeking a solution to a problem. These processes are very different from those taking place in V.G. or psychometric counselling. Here there are questions to be answered of varying degrees of precision; information is given and asked for, about the individual's standing on tests or on other measurements, subjective and objective; measurement of skills and abilities suggest lines of approach and possible goals to work for; limits are set, and boundaries are drawn by levels of attainment, by the degree of potential, by temperamental qualities and by social and domestic history. But in personal counselling, the counsellor is concerned to see things as the other person sees them, to tease out the connections between present attitudes and past experience to produce varieties of change for the future, to help the other to turn round and look at himself as it were the better to discover how the present predicament, prejudices, resentments, hostilities, aversions, preferences, and what you will, may have arisen.

Halmos³ puts the matter thus: 'It was only in this century. . . that advice giving by the responsible and learned or even pious professional has become suspect. . . a new method of helping others in some personal and private predicament has developed, which prescribes that the person in need of help should be assisted to discover more about the history of his preferences and aversions than he normally contrives to know or understand, and that he should be assisted to make his decisions in the light of new insight, more or less spontaneously gained and not in the light of directions or advice received'.

Test counselling and V.G. counselling are both needed in schools as much as personal counselling. Each needs a special training and approach. Each deals with areas of knowledge overlapping the others. If personal counselling is to be undertaken by school counsellors then it is essential to contrive their selection in such a way that only those should be trained who are likely to be capable of carrying out effective, sensitive, skilled, non-authoritarian and non-moralistic counselling. How to achieve such selection needs a full enquiry of its own and cannot be determined here in very much detail, but some recent discussion on these problems can be gleaned from American publications (cf. ⁴ & ⁵). Perhaps on the English scene selection might follow on lines similar to those followed by the National Marriage Guidance Counsellors. Such selection would assume a fairly clear appreciation of what personal qualities appeared to make for successful counselling. Extensive experimentation and experience in the English cultural pattern seems called for here before definite pronouncements could be made. What seems to be rather more certain is that people who appear to have unresolved emotional difficulties (which could for example lead to over-identification with the counsellee, or to over-dependence or to lack of smoothness or calmness in approach) perhaps should be excluded from counselling altogether.

The school counsellor needs to strike a balance between a mature concern for young people with emotional and social difficulties (cf. Roberts¹¹ mentions 'empathy' as the process whereby the other 'feels that we understand him') and

a capacity for detachment and objectivity so as not to become too involved emotionally. Perhaps 'unshockability' is a key concept here too. Avoidance of an authoritarian, moralising, bossy, hyper-critical attitude is very necessary in counselling and an 'over-dominant' personality, where the dominance may be based on neurotic difficulties, is obviously unsuitable. To be able to see people as an amalgam of feeling and emotion rather than as logical and rational seems to be essential, and also to be able to deal with irrational and contradictory tendencies in others, as well as in oneself, without anxiety, and without resort to fight, flight or panic, are desirable attributes. A capacity to tolerate ambivalence and ambiguity seems central to much personal counselling.

As Shields⁸ points out, there is no suggestion that school counsellors should be psychotherapists. In any case, such a proposal is clearly impracticable, even if desirable, as it would be impossible for school counsellors to undergo the rigour into themselves (by personal analysis) that psychotherapists submit to or to have the degree of supervision of their cases by medical and/or lay experts in the initial training period. It is possible, however, by suitable training methods to help specially selected people to perform counselling functions, without training or skill in psychotherapy, by making them aware of their shortcomings in their own personality. Thus they are enabled to start off and maintain a helping relationship with those who show signs of trouble, weakness or distress. Such a relationship seems to involve an acceptance of the other as he is rather than as we would wish him to be; an ability to see, understand and appreciate the other's problems as seen by him — how he sees his world; a capacity to provide a warm, continuous, non-threatening non-judging and supporting relationship over a period of time.

Lytton⁹ gives a recent British view of the American scene after several months spent in close analysis of the American school counsellor in action. How much of the American experience is transplantable here has yet to be determined, but that we should learn from their experience is obviously sensible. He concludes (op. cit. p. 66) 'In various fashions we are groping towards helping pupils in their personal development' and he

suggests that the present time offers 'a unique opportunity to engage in some radical re-thinking of all these functions before economic and emotional involvement have hardened positions irretrievably'. Gill¹⁰ considers that 'greater specialisation in training' may well come about if counselling is widely adopted. He too seems to be working towards a definition of the school counsellor's role as personal counselling (e.g. op. cit. p. 12. 'The counsellor will be expected to deal with common emotional disturbances found in school'. Perhaps the pointers here, as Roberts¹¹ suggests in his last paragraph, indicate a thorough-going professional enquiry, on a national level, involving experts from many disciplines. A start has been made as a Working Party of the National Association for Mental Health, under the Chairmanship of Miss Grace Rawlings, is preparing a report on counselling services in schools and this will be published in the near future (cf. p. 16 of¹²).

The term 'counsellor' has a variety of meanings — so many that finally it appears to have none. Anyone with the necessary diligence and persistence might find it both agreeable and rewarding to trace the history of the term through the ages as well as to collate the various meanings in present-day usage.

The Shorter Oxford Dictionary defines a counsellor as 'one whose profession is to give legal advice to clients' and as 'a person who offers counsel, or advice to, to advise'. In the Bible (Isiah, Ch. 6) we have 'and his name shall be called Wonderful, Counsellor, the Mighty God, the Everlasting Father, the Prince of Peace'. The British Embassy in Peking has a Counsellor (a term in Diplomacy) — while a very different meaning, if more relevant to the present theme, comes from a recent psychiatric textbook¹³ p. 2. 'The psychiatrist is now a physician of standing as well as a counsellor in social problems of general interest in education'. The school or educational counsellor is one more variant of the general species of counsellor.

Although counselling as defined in current practice is a fairly recent development, forms of 'counselling' have been practised over the centuries. E. B. Castle¹⁴ when writing of Roman

Education observes 'In his Seventh Satire Juvenal goads at the Wealthy parent who requires so much from the poor schoolmaster, expecting him to care for his son's morals, for his progress in learning, to keep watch over his boyish pranks and then pays him as much in a year as a victorious Charioteer earns in an hour'.

Suggestions here of links with the present — although appropriate rates of remuneration for as yet an unestablished profession of educational counsellors has yet to be determined on an agreed national scale!

Often in schools in this country a teacher can establish a counselling relationship' with an able and academic young person through the teaching of his subject. Such ad hoc forms of 'counselling' are very much part of the English school system and are performed by tutors, housemasters, housemistresses, form teachers as well as Heads of schools. Inevitably such forms of 'counselling' will continue — and could well be encouraged, supported and developed by the school counsellor. 'Shouksmith and Taylor have demonstrated¹⁵ that a counselling technique made as simple as possible, and which could be used by teachers without a long period of training, can be effective in helping some young people of high ability but who are under-functioning, in overcoming some of their personal problems. They conclude that 'a short training course in the specialised procedures involved could be given to suitable classroom teachers, enabling counselling programmes to be introduced on a wide scale. The significant improvement of children in the Counselling Group in the experiment, indicates that time spent this way should be profitable and rewarding both to child and teacher'.

Whether some form of in-service training for selected teachers rather than full-time University training courses in Counselling is needed, or whether both forms are needed with equal urgency, remains one of the problems to be settled in the future and requires detailed examination. It is likely that the in-service training could well increase the quality of the counselling functions of the teacher, while the full-time University courses will train, over one or two years, for full-time school counselling posts. Certainly to study the factors in

oneself and in others, at whatever level, that make for sound and stable human relationships, is always likely to have some beneficial effect on a school and its staff if only to make others aware of the complexity of the processes involved and of the need to study them systematically and consciously. Shields⁸ may well be right in doubting whether teachers are the right people to be involved in personal counselling, yet some teachers are already (and more perhaps could be) involved in some forms of counselling (as a form of helping relationship) with benefit to both. They need awareness of their limitations, of how not to go beyond their competence, of when to refer to others for advice, guidance and discussion. A full-time school counsellor, properly trained, would be on hand when needed for supportive help here.

As knowledge of personal counselling grows and expands by the development of counselling procedures in many fields (medicine, various forms of social work, marriage guidance counselling, probation work, clinical psychology, education, the law and so on) so a greater degree of precision and of agreement has come about in the use of the term 'counselling'. Attention has come to be paid to the common characteristics or similarities rather than differences arising in the counselling practised by doctors, teachers, clergymen, lawyers and the like. As everybody knows, one of the foremost names in furthering such precision is that of C. R. Rogers (cf. ¹⁶). Halmos³ draws on many fields to outline the essential features of counselling — 'This century has seen the development of a new professional activity practised by people of varying training and expertise, psychiatrists, lay and medical psychotherapists, clinical psychologists, social case workers of various kinds and some others have all learned to share the assumptions and values of the new philanthropic expertise of helping through caring — listening — prompting. . . I call the practitioners of this expertise counsellors. . . and I regard them as a new social factor of considerable influence on the cultural and moral changes in twentieth century western society'. The translation or planting or encouraging of such skills and expertise in our schools is difficult but not impossible.

The principles involved in such counselling are

mostly known although, as in any sphere of human activity, the areas of ignorance are perhaps greater than the areas of knowledge established with any certainty. Warnings in plenty have been given of the dangers here — e.g. Shields⁸ wants proper safeguards to improve the quality of counselling; and Raynor and Atcherley¹⁷ warn against over-optimism about the effectiveness of counselling. The well-known comments of H. J. Eysenck¹⁸ offer considerable doubts about the effectiveness of psychotherapy. C. H. Patterson⁵ (p. 95) concludes in his review of current trends in counselling and psychotherapy thus — ‘In spite of the lack of sufficient crucial studies to clinch the argument, one cannot read the Annual Review chapter on psychotherapy and counselling without concluding that there is sufficient evidence at least to withhold acceptance of the null hypothesis that counselling and psychotherapy makes no difference.’ More recent, and more definite, conclusions (and opposing those of Eysenck) from a recent British survey of the evidence by Robert Kellner¹⁹ are suggested — ‘The evidence further suggests that various methods of psychotherapy are effective.’

To avoid charges of ineffectiveness, or charlatanism, the personal counselling in schools must prove itself by its high quality both in theory and in practice. Once proved and demonstrated then rapid growth could be predicted.

Personal counselling involves a one-to-one relationship, each interview lasting a defined time of between three-quarters of an hour to one hour (cf.²⁰) and occurring at defined regular intervals — the duration of counselling extending from the single isolated session to several months or longer. The interviews should, if possible, be conducted in an atmosphere that is calm, unhurried and free from distraction. It should be seen and felt to be private and confidential. Clearly the setting in which the counselling takes place is of first importance. If the school values the work of the counsellor highly and creates the right psychological and physical conditions for the counsellor then supportive relationships of value can be sustained. Within a school atmosphere where the counselling is not valued highly and where counselling has to take its place at the bottom of priorities, then the school

counsellor's task as far as personal counselling goes becomes rather difficult and perhaps not very fruitful.

The counsellor makes certain assumptions in his work. Each young person or pupil is valued in their own right as a person, respected as a person who is capable of assuming responsibility for self-direction, for making right choices and decisions. It can often be the case that respecting the other can be a starting point for the other developing self-respect and self-esteem. The counsellor assumes that values and goals can be chosen and decisions can be made about them by the counsellor or ‘client’ and that these are to be respected. The principles of sound human relationships are not so obvious to common sense — they have to be discovered and developed. Counselling can be seen as a situation where the principles of learning are important and where conditioning techniques may have some relevance. Some of the problems created by ‘behavioural counselling’ based on aspects of learning theory, are outlined in a recent article by Robert H. Woody²¹. Although the goals and values connected with this aspect of counselling are controversial it seems likely that there will be an expansion of experimentation here.

Ideally personal counselling should be seen to be voluntary — the absence of threat about compulsory attendance is often a very important condition for establishing a helping relationship. Where referral is sometimes seen to be forced on a pupil the skilful counsellor can sometimes change unwillingness to willingness.

Ultimately, however, if a relationship is seen or felt to be of value it will be a voluntary one. The relationship should be one which can be broken off at any time and resumed at any time by the counselled.

Counselling involves a knowledge of aspects of psycho-analysis, e.g. transference and counter-transference phenomena; a knowledge of unconscious processes. The counsellor must know something of the limits set by our not being the master of our fate or captain of our soul. This is why if personal counselling is to be undertaken by school counsellors then it is important to have a psychiatrist, a psychotherapist, lay or medical, or practising psycho-analyst, associated with selection

and training. (cf. Shields, ⁸).

School counselling will be effective and welcomed and will expand rapidly if the 'right' people are selected for training, if specialisation or role differentiation takes place, if the 'right' training is given and the 'right' school conditions are created for counselling to take place. Only the future can determine the direction of development here and can offer an acceptable definition of what is meant by 'right'.

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Jena Revisited

Raymond King

In 'The Bridge of Jena' (New Era: March 1967) I reviewed an issue of the journal of the German-speaking Section of the WEF, (Blätter des Weltbundes: No. 2,, 1966), that was devoted to the life and work of Peter Peterson. Dr. Wilhelm Kosse, editor of the Blätter, subsequently sent me the commemorative volume on Peter Petersen, published in 1965 on the occasion of the 80th anniversary of his birth; 'Jena Plan: Anruf und Antwort' (Jena Plan: Challenge and Reply).

In this volume Professor Hans Mieskes, Director of the Institute for Pedagogical Research at the Justus-Liebig University in Giessen and Petersen's successor at Jena, brings together a score of articles by friends and former pupils of Peter Peterson. These cover the theory and practice of the Jena principles over the whole range of their application, from kindergarten to university department of education.

Retrospectively the volume pays tribute to the immense influence of Peterson upon the movement for educational reform in the first half of the 20th century. But to Professor Mieskes and his contributors, the so-called Jena Plan not only coherently embodied all the vital aspects of this historical movement for reform during Petersen's life time: it has continually unfolded in principles and practice to meet contemporary challenges to progressive educators. It points the way through our present educational predicaments towards progressive solutions on educationally valid lines.

That this is the faith of the leading spirits in the German-speaking Section of the WEF is manifest from the many other publications and reports for which they are individually or collectively responsible. For their younger members the re-discovery of Peterson and his work is of great significance: it is fortunate that the authentic picture can be conveyed by a number of Petersen's collaborators and pupils who have continued, in spite of difficulties and the set-backs of the Nazi era, to work under his lively inspiration. Some of them have contributed to the New Era in recent years: Heinrich Bolle in May 1959; Elsa

Petersen, Hans Mieskes, Heinz Kumetatz, and Theodor Rühaak in May 1965. Other authoritative exponents are Theo Dietrich, Wilhelm Krick, and Herbert Ruppert. All these have written extensively on Peter Petersen and the Jena Plan. Of the younger generation. Wilhelm Kosse has made notable contributions, among which we find frequent acknowledgement of his debt to his teacher, Professor Döpp-Vorwald, a distinguished collaborator of Petersen's.

The Petersen Memorial Volume is No. 1 of a series edited by Mieskes and published by the Finken-Verlag, Oberursel/Taunus. Mieskes himself is the author of No. 2 in the series: 'Jena Plan and School Reform'. His object in this work is to clear away some of the obstacles that in practice have hindered the efficacious implementation of the Jena Plan and in consequence have hampered school reform. He distinguishes the essence of the Jena principles, what he calls the 'pedagogical minima'. that truly characterise the Jena school: the primacy of the **educative** process, group work, pedagogical freedom, personal choice, regard for the 'whole man', the nature of the 'situation' as the unit of the curriculum, and the principles of guidance, among which pre-eminently is truth to life. The educative process must be rooted in real life and actual experience.

These principles essentially have a forward-looking aspect as guide-lines for the reorganisation of the present educational system. The school that is always 'on the way' fits a society that is increasingly on the move. Mieskes bases his ideas of reform on his personal experience as teacher and subsequently headmaster of the university school at Jena, and on his present research and practice as professor of education at Giessen. He pictures the school as a community of parents, teachers, and pupils in which the democratic way of life is not so much taught in theory as lived in practice.

No. 3 in the series is: 'Erziehung und Lebenssinn', by Wilhelm Kosse. It is an examination of Petersen's philosophy of education, with its base in metaphysical Realism. Among the multiplicity of books and pamphlets that Petersen published, there is nowhere a systematic exposition of his philosophy as a whole. Kosse's

exhaustive study of Petersen's writings enables him to frame its theoretical structure and support it by quotations from his works.

In our English philosophy of education, or at least in our educational vocabulary, we have no categories that convey the meaning of Lebenssinn and Schulwirklichkeit. Their purport may however be gathered from their embodiment in the concrete pedagogical 'situation'.

Petersen was the first educationalist to grasp the fruitful connection between the existentialist conception of the 'situation' and the science of education. In face of the situation the child is engaged as a whole person. It is in choice and decision that he becomes a self. The situation engenders a reciprocity between pupils and between pupil and teacher. The individual cannot fulfil himself in isolation: he needs others to complete his self-realisation. The Thou is indispensable to the development of what constitutes the I. To be a human being is to be in situations. To Petersen education is concerned with man in his life situation. The Lebenssinn (Life conception) comes to be realised in Schulwirklichkeit (true-to-life genuine experience as the basis of school learning).

The teacher does not stand over against the class as the oracular source of knowledge. He is not even the master of the situation: he cannot with certainty pre-plan its development; for in human situations there is always an irrational element. This engenders spontaneity, on the part of pupil and teacher alike. Nor can the teacher stand by merely as observer. He is a participant in the situation, and as a participant a learner as well as a guide and mentor.

The situation is an aspect of reality that makes its immediate impact on the learner. It is first-hand subjective experience. Contents, elaboration, and evaluation should not be objectively and prematurely supplied by the teacher. The teacher's temptation to take 'short cuts' to supplying knowledge should be resisted. The process by which reality impinges upon the consciousness of the pupil should not be short-circuited. The situation as the stuff of education must be allowed to speak for itself. Man is involved with his fellows in situations. Hence the educative

significance of the real group, the community or fellowship of persons, each of whom reacts as a whole person, bringing to bear in discussion his own ideas, experiences, and judgments. These are pooled, compared, criticised, corrected, and supplemented. A questing and questioning attitude to knowledge is built up. To illustrate the teacher's attitude, Kosse quotes from A. S. Neill's 'A Dominie in Doubt': 'I can only stand by and give them freedom'.

This stresses the point that there should be no officious or dogmatic interference between the pupil and the situation (reality) during the subjective phase of the encounter. In the total situation the teacher is not by-stander but participant.

These are among the conclusions that Kosse draws at the end of his study. His object has been to show how the Jena principles are grounded in Petersen's philosophical system. This involves consideration of the nature of Reality, and of education as an aspect of Reality (and hence an autonomous science); man's relation to reality; the metaphysical conception of community and its realisation in human community; man as an individual in polarity with the universe and his world (God, Nature, and his fellow man), and becoming a person in community.

I am not competent to criticise or evaluate this study of Petersen's metaphysical Realism.

Two observations however seem to me to be called for.

First, the Jena plan does not stand or fall on the warrant of this philosophy. Petersen was above all a practical and practising teacher. The evaluation of his pedagogical practice was closely and continuously linked at the Jena university school with operational research. Ultimately this supplied the validation of his methods. His philosophical convictions did not make him a doctrinaire. We are coming to realise the vital importance of linking research more closely with practice in the classroom and of making it a more integral part of the teacher's experience. For this Petersen over a generation ago gave us an outstanding example: with him, theory, research, and practice formed an organic whole. For him

Education as an autonomous science justified its place among the Faculties in a university.

My second observation bears on the significance that Petersen has assumed for our WEF fellow members in the German Federal Republic. The eradication of Nazi 'education' under Anglo-Saxon and French supervision after the war left a twenty years gap in the indigenous evolution of German education. In common with the rest of the system, the progressive elements found the need to re-root themselves in the pre-1933 era. For the new generation, as was mentioned earlier, this meant a re-discovery of Petersen as an educational pioneer in the tradition of the great pedagogical realists, Froebel and Pestalozzi. At Jena Peterson had reacted against the pedagogical methodology of Herbart, that perhaps consorted too easily with the rigidities of the German educational tradition.

The fact that the authorities in the German Democratic Republic closed down the Jena university school and downgraded Petersen's Academy of Educational Science from university status, was not calculated to diminish Petersen's status among progressives in the Federal Republic. The dynamic impulse of the Jena Plan is towards freedom and democracy in education, principles upon which both the Allied Governments and the reformers in Germany hoped to reconstruct the system.

Important too is the conviction among German progressives that Petersen embodied in his theory and practice of education the total spirit of 20th Century educational reform, not only at the time when he was most influential in the earlier decades of the century, but pre-eminently for today and for tomorrow. The expansiveness and adaptability of the Jena principles are capable of uniting all the various partial and piecemeal efforts at educational reform into a coherent whole — a total strategy for the renewal of education.

Outside Germany, Susan Freudenthal-Lutter in Holland has come to the same conclusion. In her view, at least among the various national sections of the WEF, we might come together in concerted and co-ordinated educational policy growing out of the Jena principles. I have received a copy of the new book she has been

working on for some time: 'Naar de school van morgen' (Toward the school of tomorrow), published by Nauta-Reeks, Alphen aan den Rijn, 1968.

She traces the historical development of the ideal of 'Schoolwerkelijkheid' (Schulwirklichkeit) from around 1800 to our own times. Many of the features embodied in the Jena Plan are discernible in the work of the progressive educators of a century before. During the 19th and early 20th centuries there were many promising but unco-ordinated essays towards the school of tomorrow, each tending to emphasise the particular insights of some practical reformer. The views of the author, if I read them aright, are that it is time we got away from the endless 'new beginnings' — which continue to make their appearance — from the repeated 'discovery' of what has long been known, and set about a nationally and internationally co-ordinated educational advance all along the line. This should be 'progressive' in the sense that it is open-ended and capable of continual development, never hardening into a 'dated' system or into an orthodoxy that repels new insights and resists change. The multiplication of new models gets us nowhere. What we need is a flexible model that can adapt educational means to ends, not a model to which the means give a shape and rigidity that resist the changing means that invention or necessity bring along.

Frontal instruction in graded classes was the traditional means, and the school models that it produced are still with us. From within this rigid framework we have broken out into individual teaching, Dalton Plan, the education of the gifted or the backward, group work, projects, family and multiple grouping, interdisciplinary enquiry, team teaching, continuous learning: add to these programmed learning, class room technology, closed-circuit television and presently the satellite.

The view maintained in the German and Dutch books I deal with here is that none of these educational means, valuable as they may be in themselves, should be regarded as the *deus ex machina* that provides the unique solution or the one method on which to model a school.

But the Jena Plan as a conceptual model is flexible enough to admit any or all of these developments. 'Plan' in fact is an unfortunate label, as Petersen himself felt, as tending to suggest a set method or methods. In his view the teacher should have various methods and means at his command to suit different pupils and varying situations.

Unfortunately the teacher who does not read German (or Dutch) has to take these claims largely on trust. Little of the material is available in English. The issues of the *New Era* earlier referred to contain helpful material, but in the special Petersen issue of May 1965 it is almost entirely in German.

However a document in English, prepared by Susan Freudenthal-Lutter and her colleagues in the Dutch Section's 'Jena Plan Workshop' (active since 1959) has recently reached me: 'Jena Plan in a Nutshell'. This is intended as an outline guide for educators from abroad visiting Holland, but I expect it could be made available through International H.Q. to individual enquirers in this country.

This document gives English translations of extracts from specified works of Peter Petersen, a well-elaborated analytical model of the Jena Plan school, and a Time Table showing the rhythm of the school week. It also includes the English precis of Dr. Rühaak's article in the *New Era* of May 1965, and a considerable part of the article in the *New Era* of March 1967, 'The Bridge of Jena'.

To present the Jena Plan, already described as a total strategy of reform, 'in a nutshell' seems a bold undertaking. But the eventual tree is potentially present in the nut, and it is not a misleading oversimplification to say that the kernel of the Plan is the replacement of the traditional graded class by a multifold system of grouping.

The necessity of this as a measure of reform stands out more saliently in continental systems of grading than in ours. Ours has never assumed the rigidity that comes from central control of the syllabus content and standards appropriate to

each annual grade. We are more concerned with the effects of rigid 'streaming', which may make its appearance as a self-validating judgement on children's capacities from the age of 7. This is not the precise problem that the German and Dutch progressives face, though Jena principles are opposed to our rigidities just as much as to theirs.

In his 'New European Education Movement' (1926) Petersen blames the learning difficulties that teachers so often encounter in their pupils upon the division of the total curriculum into annual segments for each grade, often subdivided into sections to be covered weekly, or even hourly, by the whole class. This connection of instruction with graded class structure, leading to graded class teaching style, resulted in mass instruction aimed at the average, and was detrimental to the education both of the gifted and of the backward. It destroyed continuous learning for both.

It was most demonstrably bad for the less able who, failing the annual test, were required to repeat the year ('Sitzenbleiben'), often for more than one grade. Petersen records the high percentage who therefore failed to complete the course: in the elementary schools the percentage of 'drop-outs' was in many areas around 50%: in the high schools even more disastrous.

This proved the bankruptcy of the grade system with its exclusive goal of instruction. A reformed system must give primacy to the education of the child as a human being. This implied schools that served the needs of **all** normal children, whatever their abilities, and that enabled them to learn continuously at their own pace and in association with each other in an educational community.

Hence the rigid grading of classes must give way to a school pattern that permitted freedom for the pupil to grow from within towards the individual uniqueness of his own personality in relation with other personalities. The conception of freedom in fellowship must be concretely embodied in the organisation of the school and thus become not just an ideal but a continuously operative formative influence in the process of education.

Anthropological considerations reinforce the following Jena principles:

What obtains in school must correspond with what obtains in real life. The child must have unhindered access to reality. Pupils as persons must be at liberty to relate themselves to each other as they naturally and freely associate in real life situations, and the school should be free from artificial constraints imposed by rigid organisations or any conditions that hamper genuinely educative relationships.

This is the meaning of *Schulwirklichkeit*. It promotes the circumstances in which the conditions of learning are particularly favourable, because they call for spontaneity, self-reliance, problem-solving, and choice: in a word, the response of the whole person.

The conception of the *Stamm-gruppe* (family or home-room group) is based on these considerations. It has something in common with the unstreamed or 'mixed ability' class that we find in some English schools, and with the 'tutorial group' that is quite usual in our comprehensive schools. But fundamentally it has more in common with the 'family-grouping' that has developed in a number of infant schools and occasionally in the junior school.

For the *Stamm-gruppe* is a mixed ability of boys and girls of different ages. Since it is not only a pastoral and social unit, but also a learning group, its age-range is limited to three years. For example, in the Peter Petersen School in Hamburg — Wellingsbüttel, children of 6-9 are in the Lower group, 9-12 in the Middle group, 12-14 in the Upper group, 14-16 in the Youth group, and 16-18 in the Top group. This nomenclature shows that the scheme started with an 'elementary' school and was extended upwards as the school developed at the secondary stage. This is worth noting as indicating that the Jena Plan is not restricted to the Basic stage of education.

These 'family' groupings suit the nature of that part of the curriculum with which they are concerned: namely, learning on the basis of the 'situation', which may sometimes take the form, more familiar to us, of the 'project'. The

Stammgruppe, in itself a flexible unit, is based on educational, psychological, social, and anthropological principles. Within it the pupils can group and re-group themselves according to their stages of development (rather than their year of birth), their field of interest, their particular talent, their choice of working companions. The older or more mature help the younger. There is shared responsibility for the task, with continual growth of social capacity. The week's work is planned in discussion circle and shaped to a rhythmic whole culminating in the weekly celebration.

The mixed age and ability group, though fundamental to the educative purposes of the Jena Plan, was not considered by Petersen, nor is it by his followers, adequate to all the purposes of the school. The principle of freedom — free association with persons and free access to educative experience — rejects the traditional pattern of grading in favour of the group concept, based on community living and the natural life situation in learning: but it also demands a flexible system of grouping for particular purposes that have regard to achievement, rate of growth, special ability, and choice according to interest.

Hence from the permanent base of the family group the pupil may, at the appropriate stage, join a 'Niveau course'. This has something in common with the English 'set' system, though it is not a horizontal but a vertical grouping, which enables the pupil 'to put his feet on the skill-track where he can expect a reasonable degree of success.' Hence it works to the advantage of the gifted child as well as of the slow learner. The child backward in reading or number attends a niveau course for the more systematic acquisition of these particular skills. From the stage when particular subjects emerge as 'disciplines', calling for ordered sequence and systematically structured knowledge, niveau courses are also appropriate: for example in mathematics, technical studies, and specialised study of foreign languages.

Since in the nature of things the pupil cannot follow all the fields of study offered in rich variety by a good school, choice of options must be met by other groupings: and by still other

groupings for choice of extracurricular pursuits. Both these types of grouping are on the vertical niveau pattern where the nature of the study or pursuit makes it desirable.

Thus a school for children of all ability levels caters for the needs of the individual both by group work and course work. On the intellectual side, it recognises differences in ability, bent, and interest without institutional segregation. Throughout his school life, the pupil continues to meet educational 'situations', as he may expect to meet life situations, in the society of his fellow men in all their variety.

The selection of the current Jena Plan literature that I have dealt with raises questions for the English Section of the Fellowship. Our former President, Sir Fred Clarke, held the view that change in English educational practice had come about as the result of 'hunches' rather than educational research or tested theories of education. The research that his influence did so much to bring about is now being turned upon educational reforms which, following the urgency of public demand after the war, could not await the long process of validation before adoption.

The most conspicuous instance is comprehensive re-organisation at the secondary stage.

The Comprehensive school was originally understood by most administrators, and by most Heads who carried through the changes on the spot, as a mode of organisation and not as a new theory of education. It aimed at bringing together all the existing resources for secondary education in a given area and making them accessible to all pupils, and keeping them accessible to pupils as they developed. This meant a greater richness and variety of provision for all pupils and the breaking down of the barriers to access at all stages. Flexibility of organisation did not necessarily entail changes in educational theory or pedagogical method. The best that was known and practised in the existing schools could be embodied in a school that 'comprehended' all the existing modes.

But the adventurousness that conceived a school as a total secondary system for its area was bound to lead it towards new developments.

Besides, owing to all sorts of difficulties, we had in most cases to make do with a much more limited and truncated reality. The vast majority of schools failed to 'comprehend' the whole range of secondary education. But English empiricism triumphs. 'Our mere defects prove our commodities'. The four principles of the White Paper of 1943 (inadequately embodied in the ensuing Act) are not beyond our reach: a happier childhood, equality of opportunity, variety of provision, and 'a more closely-knit society'. These strengthen the idea of a 'comprehensive education', which involves changes in educational theory and practice that are not necessitated by the elusive and largely illusory comprehensive organisation of education.

One such change is the idea of mixed ability groups. With us this means getting away from 'streaming'. At the primary stage and having regard to the nature of education up to 11 or so, this seems to me to be wholly beneficial, both for what it promotes and even more for what it prevents — self-validating premature judgments upon children at the age of 7.

How does it meet the situation at the secondary stage?

Do we propose to find this out by process of trial and error?

Are we trying a new 'hunch' to discover what, according to the Jena advocates, has long been known?

Dr Herbert Ruppert, who was Peter Petersen's colleague in Jena, writes a relevant chapter in the 'Memorial Volume' on 'The Meaning and Function of Courses in the Jena Plan'. The outline of his argument is as follows:

After 40 years the Jena Plan justifies itself as a solution to the problem of the differentiation of education in the light of differences of endowment, ability, interest, aptitude, and rate of development.

It provides, primarily a common area of learning together in the basic classes which are organised as family groups. This is the 'kernel' or common core of the curriculum.

For these purposes the school is regarded as a self-educating community, teaching as a help to self-development, learning as a natural activity in natural situations.

Hence it rejects the traditional idea of graded classes which imply compulsory equal progress in subject learning. The pupil's basic education is embedded in group work within the framework of which are individual work, team work in small groups of 2 to 6 (table groups), and joint participation in the whole Group project. This shared work is interdisciplinary and based on a broad theme that under discussion reveals many aspects. One essential effect is that pupils are enabled to discover their personal interests and particular aptitudes, and shape their individual purposes and sense of direction.

Thus it becomes incumbent on the teacher as a moral duty to nourish the growing minds, to give them the opportunity individually to stretch their faculties fully in the newly discovered fields. In this sense subjects as special disciplines arise logically and psychologically from the group 'situation'. The complementary factor to the 'common core' is the 'course', in which there is differentiation of contents and teaching in the light of individual differences. In the subject studies, especially those which must be learned on a systematic-logical basis, the classes are homogeneous in standard of attainment though not necessarily in age.

Dr. Ruppert's line of thought suggests that there are two main kinds of learning in school which run parallel: general education in the group, special education in the course. The former is shared by all: the latter gives choice of particular studies.

This seems to me fairly analogous to the life situation. We build up a great deal of our knowledge concentrically through expanding awareness around centres of interest, or humanly speaking around 'situations': but in selected fields of special interest we set about constructing

our knowledge systematically from the base up.

By and large, and for historical and other reasons, the English secondary system is far more flexible than the continental and the individual school more autonomous. It might follow that our schools would prove more hospitable to the Jena idea of multiple flexible groupings.

If we are to move generally towards 'unstreaming' in the comprehensive school, the 'mixed ability' class of coevals may be part of the solution, but not necessarily the whole.

Before we commit ourselves to this all-over pattern too exclusively — or too rigidly — it might be prudent to re-visit Jena with our German friends and have another look.

Freedom and Authority in the Development of the Young Adult

This was the title of a lecture given by Mr John Bazalgette, MA, Dip Ed, Project Officer of Christian Teamwork Institute of Education on Tuesday 26 November, to members and guests of the Christian Teamwork Trust. Sir Maurice Parsons, Deputy Governor of the Bank of England and Chairman of the Trust, was in the Chair.

Mr Bazalgette described his work to date in the Young Adult Resource Project which has been running for two years, mainly in the Islington/Hackney area of London. This three-year project is supported by a department of Education & Science grant. Its aim, he said, was to investigate the issues involved in supporting young adults making the transition to a full adult role in society. At present there was much confusion and concern about the problems of young people and their relations with people in positions of authority. The project's findings were likely to contribute more understanding.

Enquiries to: Christian Teamwork Institute of Education, 1 Whitehall Place, London S.W. 1. 01-930 6364.

The case of Gertrude Johnson

Some Comments on Children's Erotic Writing
Colin Bulman

Lecturer in English, Oastler College of Education

'When thought is closed in caves
Then love shall show its roots in deepest hell.'
William Blake

'Owing to the split in the human character structure of today, nature and culture, instinct and morality, sexuality and achievement, are considered incompatible. That **unity of culture and nature, work and love, morality and sexuality** for which mankind is forever longing, this unity will remain a dream as long as man does not permit the satisfaction of the demands of natural (orgastic) sexual gratification. Until then, true democracy and responsible freedom will remain an illusion, and helpless submission to existing social conditions will characterize human existence. Until then, the extinguishing of life will prevail, be it in compulsive education, in compulsive social institutions, or in wars.'

Wilhelm Reich

'Sex. What is it? Nobody told us but we know. Well, we just have a crude idea about it as we have not been told properly. Sex is all around. It's as important as maths and English and we should have lessons about it. **13 year old boy.**

The encouragement of free expression in children's writing, the emphasis on the importance of content above presentation and grammatical meticulousness has been in vogue now for a considerable number of years. The child is prompted by the progressive teacher to lose his inhibitions and write about what he likes, how he likes, and when he likes, with a minimum of restricting rules.

And yet in spite of this attitude and the undoubted good it has done, there have been few articles, books or comments by teachers on children's erotic writing; and this even though no teacher would deny that the secondary school child is intensely aware of and interested in the various manifestations of sexuality.

Is this because the teacher, while professing a progressive outlook, takes an attitude to sex similar to that of the film and play censor and suppresses what he cannot ignore? This may be true in a few cases where the teacher's own attitude to sex has been affected by a bad upbringing or some distressing personal experience. Is it because sex is a taboo subject in schools? No, or partly no. The school may be quite prepared to provide lessons in the biological and ethical aspects of sex, but even where these are given prominence, there is often little attempt to discuss the psychological and physical realities of sex which play such a part in the lives of 99% of the population, including the pupils of about twelve years and older who sit in front of the teacher every day. A biology teacher I knew who claimed to give comprehensive lessons on sex to her female charges was shocked when I asked her how she treated the subject of masturbation! And a headmaster I heard extolling his school's open attitude to sexual instruction later confessed that, in fact, his pupils only took away with them knowledge of the sexual activities of worms and rabbits!

Of course it cannot be denied that some schools are better than these two examples, and more and more use the fairly admirable BBC broadcasts on sex education. Human sexuality and the birth of the human baby are dealt with realistically in these broadcasts, but it is usually adult sexuality which is discussed or described and the attitude of the programme is usually one of remoteness, there is something academic about the whole thing. How many lessons and broadcasts have dealt honestly with the subject which is closest to the hearts of secondary school pupils: teenage or adolescent sexuality? Very few, if any.

And while the teaching body will have its share of sexual misfits in the same way as any other profession, there is still an unaccountable reluctance to consider children's erotica by the many adjusted and stable teachers of English who must abound. The reason for this, I believe, lies in the general climate of opinion which surrounds the subject of sex. The so-called sexual revolution is, in fact, just beginning. It may appear to be in its maturity or — as some of the pundits would have it — even dying, but really

only a very small percentage of the population are any more progressive and realistic in their attitude towards sex than twenty or more years ago.

This is demonstrated by the public outcry in the newspapers which attended the school teacher who set as a writing subject how a girl would explain to her parents that she had become pregnant. The matter was even referred to the education authority. Would such publicity be given to a teacher who set, for example, an essay in which the writer had to imagine he was a murderer?

We can conclude then that public opinion prevents the teacher of English from dealing with the subject of erotic writing to the extent that he or she might wish. In addition, it has to be considered that many children echo and embody this climate of opinion, through their family backgrounds and through general public attitudes. The present-day teenager is not as free as he professes to be, or is sometimes considered to be by the older generation. The inhibitions of the fathers are visited on many of the sons and daughters!

The thirteen year old who wrote the following in an essay is expressing the opinion conferred on him by his parents or by a common attitude of reactionary society, I should think:

'I think this country is too bound up with sex at this moment, and it should be left well alone. Relationships with girls are all right but sex is better left out altogether'.

Because many teachers avoid the subject of sex in free writing in order to save themselves from any possible trouble with parents, the public, or the press; a lot of children are obviously encouraged in their opinion that sex is a taboo subject. The people who perpetrate wrong and unfree ideas also have power over those who might instil better and less inhibited attitudes in young people. Thus, the circle is indeed vicious.

This attitude, needless to say, leads to writing which is dull and stultified. All teachers of English would probably agree that the child writer is nothing if not direct when he knows he can

write as he wishes; which, of course, he feels he can on any subject where no fear is attached. Consider then this short extract from an essay on a spare time activity:

‘There are a lot of boys with motor bikes up our way and it’s handy if you want to go places, but on the other hand it can be ghastly because there are only three girls on the Moor and the rest are all boys with leather jackets and big bikes, and when you get on the back you don’t know when he’s going to stop and say we’ve run out of petrol or some other feeble excuse’.

The writer knew exactly what she wanted to say about sex and the exploitation of girls in her rural environment, which was the subject of the whole essay, but she used this veiled technique throughout. Would anyone contend that this is better than a situation which would allow and encourage the girl to say what she meant openly and directly.

‘When boys go out with girls they just take a proper lend and if they are not satisfied with the girl they just drop her like that’.

Again we know exactly what this girl of 14 is saying but we should deplore the imprecision and slang which have been forced on her by general attitudes to the subject about which she is writing.

The above examples are not examples of veiled erotic writing, of course. I am sure, however, that the school girl or boy is more enthusiastic about writing on romantic themes and erotic themes than we might imagine. The plush curtain of respectability and public opinion again prevails. If you are a teacher, when did you last suggest such a topic for a story?

Some young people are compelled to write on these subjects and the boy who wrote the essay I shall quote at length, although he was rather embarrassed when he presented his story, at least avoided himself the ignominy of resorting to dirty jokes and lavatory graffiti. I am certain he now feels that he can write and discuss anything and his breakthrough is reflected in the rest of the class of 14+ pupils.

Autobiography of Gertrude Johnson

I was at the age of twelve, and I lived in a place called Cargan in Somerset. I was quite happy, my parents were working class, they loved me, I loved them. There was this boy at school called Harold, we called him the Hare.

One night after a school party, he said he would take me home. I accepted as the road was a lonely one and I liked him.

We walked along, it was only 8 o’clock but the road was dark and long. We talked. The night air filled our lungs, it was a lovely clear feeling. We stopped. I looked at him, he looked at me. Suddenly I felt an urge, suddenly we kissed, a thrilling feeling ran through my veins. We stopped, we kissed again, harder, harder he pressed against me.

We stopped. I felt happy, I thought he did, then we hugged and went skipping along the lane.

This romance went on, we would meet after school and walk home, kissing, loving. I saw him a lot, sometimes we went out, or stayed out on the park bench.

I was coming to the age of 14, my parents did not know about me and Hare, and I did all I could to stop them knowing.

Harold and I were happy together. We went to the pictures and so on. We only had one real argument, and that was when I came out in slacks. He did not like them, and said they were unfeminine, we had a hell of an argument but we soon made it up.

Once when we went to the pictures it was a cowboy, goodies against baddies. We did not watch much, but we kissed and loved. About half way through he put his hand on my knee. I pushed it off, he said I wasn’t giving him a chance but that I was playing hard to get. I said okay. He placed his hand on my knee again. I let him this time.

He started sliding his hand up my dress. I did not stop him, but kissed him, he did it further up my leg. I just kissed him harder. I felt his hand against my pants, then it was over, he pulled his

hand down again.

A few weeks later came my fifteenth birthday. Harold bought me a handbag. It was very nice.

A week later he was waiting at the usual place, we went out, then he asked me to let him 'have me'. I felt a bit squeamish, but we had been going for about three years together so, why not?

We went to our secret hideout. It was nothing but an old deserted barn that we visited quite frequently. We both lay down on the hay. We started kissing, at first passionately, but then he put his hand round my back and started unbuttoning my pullover. Then we sat up, he gazed at me. I nodded back. We had some old blankets, we made a sort of bed.

I let him make the first move. He took his jacket off and his shoes. I took off my pullover, then my blouse, we stripped. I was in my bra and pants, he was in his underpants. We got into the makeshift bed and I pulled off my bra, but he eased off my pants. I pressed against him, we kissed. I felt my breasts push against his chest. He moved his hand up my leg, and fiddled about a bit at the top, he grabbed my breast and kissed it. I felt his body against mine, we moved around, I was flat on my back, he was on top of me, we brushed against each other kissing all the time. He then placed his hand on the top of my leg and levelled up on me, I felt excited. He then placed his finger. He placed on his contraceptive, and slid his rod in. I felt a sharp stab of pain, there was some blood, then all was calm and lovely, it was a thrilling feeling. We went on, it was the most lovely thing I had experienced in my life. I need not say any more of this happening.

Harold and I had it six more times that year. My birthday came up in January, I was sixteen. Harold had been sixteen since September. We thought it was about time to bring our partnership into the open. So I took Harold home, my parents liked him and invited him to stay for supper. My parents kept him talking nearly all night. But I said goodbye to Harold alone, we kissed goodnight passionately, and it was a lengthy kiss.

We went to my house quite a lot, my parents

understood remarkably and left us alone. We made love quite frequently. I was seduced many times. We loved each other very much and did not want to part, but one day I received a letter from Harold which said he was finished with me, and that he was going away, he wrote that he would always love me.

I was now over twenty, my parents had been killed in a road accident. One night I was in a bar. This girl came across and sat down. We got talking, I found her name was Doreen Williams, we soon became good friends and went into digs together.

One night in the cafe round the corner we met these two boys. They were quite good looking, and asked us if we would like a cup of coffee, we accepted gratefully. They sat down beside us and talked, one talked to me while the other talked to Doreen.

Through questioning the boy afterwards, I discovered that he had read little or no erotic writing or pornography. He admitted only reading a few factual books on the subject of sex and had been most impressed and influenced by Colin Wilson's 'Sex and the Intelligent Teenager'. To the direct question: 'What led you to write the the story?' he replied that he had been thinking of the subject for some weeks and had felt he wanted to do it. He could give no reason why he wrote it from the girl's point of view. No subject or title had been set. The story was written from personal choice.

I need not point out the virtues and weaknesses of this piece of writing to readers of this journal. The beautiful beginning and the directness of much of the sexual description is offset by the weak ending and the use of some cliché expressions; although in the ending he at least avoids the pseudo-romantic ending of the magazine story. But the important question is: should this sort of writing be allowed? encouraged? And before answering it, it should be borne in mind — as all teachers of English will realize or know — that writing of this kind can be much cruder than the above-quoted example.

The opinions of the present writer should be

clear by now, but I can well envisage that many teachers may suggest that it would be better to encourage the kind of symbolic writing on sex such as that discussed by David Holbrook in his book 'The Exploring Word' and of which the following is a recent example I discovered:

Under ancient oaks and elms,
We will ride alone forever,
Just my dappled grey and I,
Alone among the heather.

We will ride until we find the sun,
And dream our dreams together,
Me and my dappled grey,
Shall sleep among the heather.

My answer to this is that this kind of writing cannot be consciously encouraged and is created by only a minority of children. I believe there is a place for both kinds of writing, and possibly the former is of more use to the majority in that it promotes much needed discussion and may even reduce the popularity of pornography among a section of adult readers.

The sole purpose of this article, however, is to stimulate thought on this subject among other teachers, and not thought only, but open discussion and research. People who come across examples of children's erotic writing should collect examples and note the situation which led to its production. A large scale enquiry into this aspect of writing and its implications is required and would repay serious study by educationalists, teachers and psychologists. This is merely, and because of the climate of opinion, an introductory essay.

Colin Bulman is a lecturer in English at Oastler College of Education and recently was Librarian and English teacher at Alnwick Co. Secondary School. He is the author of 'Themes for English' (McGraw-Hill) and numerous articles on educational subjects for 'The Teacher' and 'The New Schoolmaster'.

EASTER CONFERENCE

The Association of Workers for Maladjusted Children
1969

'TRAINING OR TREATING DISTURBED CHILDREN?'

on Friday 11th April — Tuesday 15th April at
MANOR HALL, UNIVERSITY OF BRISTOL

details from:- Bodenham Manor School, Bodenham,
Hereford.

BOOK REVIEWS

'New Dimensions in Higher Education'

K. G. Collier

Longmans 'Education Today' Series. 1968. 160 pp. 18/-

Mr Collier writes primarily for those engaged in teaching the new student population in all places of higher education. But this useful little book affords an excellent introduction for the reader who wants to inform himself more precisely on a group of problems that have repercussions outside the universities and the colleges of education and technology.

The 'new dimensions' are the prospective vast scale of higher education, the 'explosion' of knowledge, and the potential contribution of educational technology to methods of teaching and to the realisation of new conceptions of the functions of the teacher.

The book is based on a number of papers and articles written during the last six years, concurrently with an active participation in the debate from a key position as Principal of the College of the Venerable Bede, a member of the Senate of the University of Durham, and Chairman of the A.T.C.D.E. in 1964-65 a time of critical debate and decision. The author brings to bear on a number of problems his experience in conducting seminars in the USA.

The higher education 'explosion' is bringing in large numbers of students for whom the traditional special honours degree is for many reasons an unsuitable objective. New educational aims, new content of courses, new methods of teaching, new modes of assessment, and new staff-student relationships are called for.

How to generate genuine intellectual zeal in students who are at the university to get 'qualifications', who carry forward to the university the effects of GCE pressure and the volume of memorisation and intensive teaching entailed? What kind of education is suited to the average student?

The ruling aim should be to cultivate intellectual and imaginative judgment, flexibility and creativity in modes of thinking. The contributions of different types of thinking and judgement are examined: the historical, the scientific and technological, the mathematical, the linguistic, the aesthetic ethical. Hence is derived the nature of the course. Not a general survey but a concentration on carefully selected and limited fields, supported by a grasp of structure, major concepts, and the modes of thinking appropriate to the particular study.

This is where the lecture can best serve. The usual course of lectures, which tends to be tied to under graduate syllabuses and to give summaries of fact and opinion which the student could make for himself, is outmoded. Modern technology enables a single first-rate lecturer, using the resources and power of presentation of television, to free teaching staff to concentrate on small group work.

The individual assignment with frequent 'tutorial' as at Oxbridge, is excellent, but makes heavy demands on the staff. Linked with a course to be followed by large numbers of students, it makes enormous demands on library provision. (Keele

supplies 80 copies of certain essential texts). The author welcomes the advent of programmed learning and the promise of its more recent developments in promoting individual mental activity, problem-solving, and relevance of learning to experience.

The value of group discussion of the traditional seminar pattern is unquestioned. Whether the T-group techniques are as valuable as selective discussion is as yet unresolved.

The above methods all help to free the students from study habits and attitudes the majority bring from school. But more is needed. The 'syndicate' method helps to generate the student's own ideas before he learns the lecturer's views. How can academic studies be related to first-hand knowledge and practical experience? Vocational orientation supplies one answer, and it is a damaging misconception to consider it illiberal.

Again, the nature of examinations profoundly influences students' methods of study. The new approaches demand new methods of assessment.

Discussion of these problems inevitably brings into question the nature of institution for higher education, the relations of staff and students, the supply and training of teachers to develop the new approaches, and the institutional inertia maintained by social forces.

All this is highly controversial matter on which no one will claim to have said the last word. But Mr Collier has identified and illuminated many growing points, and concludes with a sketch of an inter-professional college in which his ideas for the education of the average student might be successfully implemented.

Raymond King.

Culture, Industrialisation and Education

G. H. Bantock

First published 1968 by Routledge and Kegan Paul Ltd.
Price 16s

Those who know Professor Bantock's other publications will not be surprised by the general approach he takes in his current book which is part of the Routledge series aimed particularly at students in Colleges of Education.

Professor Bantock scores some direct hits when commenting on the culture of the schools, particularly when he criticizes the role of examinations and the approach to academic subjects. The book is illuminated by his sensitive use of modern literary sources, particularly of course D. H. Lawrence. It remains, however, highly personal and, unlike others in the series, it takes a very subjective look at the contemporary situation. It is hardly surprising therefore, that it is in the critical and often caustic analysis of aspects of popular culture that Professor Bantock is seen at his most provocative and stimulating.

Although he does attempt to make some constructive suggestions about the education of the emotions, one is still left with the impression that he has more than a sneaking regard for Lawrence's injunction which he quotes in his first chapter: i.e. 'The great mass of humanity should never learn to read and write — never'. In the end, there is an overwhelming impression that Professor Bantock is

unable to perceive any real future for popular education. He adheres basically to Matthew Arnold's view of culture as 'the best that has been thought and said' and sees this culture as being transmitted to an intellectual and cultural elite. However, his small book (it is, after all, only 90 pages of actual text) is, as always, lucid and ruminative and well worth the attention of those who wish to read a scholarly critique of Education and the cultural dilemma.

James F. Porter.

'Four Years Old in an Urban Community'

John and Elizabeth Newson

George Allen and Unwin, 60s, 1968.

The book is part of a continuing study first 'Infant care in an urban community' now this — 'The four year old in an urban community' and a promised study on the seven year old.

It is a large book with carefully analysed findings but its readability will make it interesting both to professional and lay readers. The verbatim reporting of the parents' answers gives life to the bones of the inquiry and the speakers become, through the course of the book, sometimes lovable, always fascinating characters.

The writers' ability to comment without making value judgements and their readiness to allow the mothers' comments to stand by themselves give this book its great value as a clear and unbiased insight into many parts of society. It would give the student of sociology a clear account of a piece of research as the authors show in detail how it was done; the care which went into the wording of the questions, the amount of prompting and the constant self criticism which made them rephrase questions.

It should be of great use to teachers and others who need a wider understanding of the way in which a child is brought up and the factors which influence his physical, intellectual, emotional and social development and family relationships.

Alfreda Thorogood.

'Planning Small-Scale Research'

K. M. Evans

London: NFER, 89 pp., 6s 6d.

Increasingly, teachers in training, especially experienced teachers taking advanced courses, are called upon to undertake a small piece of research as part of their course of study. This book, one of the first paperbacks in a new NFER series called 'Exploring Education', aims at providing'. . . a practical introduction to research of a type which a teacher or student might be able to carry out in school.'

Dr Evans first discusses some of the different types of questions which practising teachers, desirous of extending their professional knowledge, may pose themselves. Such questions as 'what common interests draw children together in a group?' or 'to what extent is progress in a school subject related to intelligence?' She discusses how to narrow down the field of enquiry, where to go to find recent surveys of the literature on a particular topic, which journals to consult, and so on. Each step is carefully explained and well documented. Planning

instruction are being introduced, and, because many teachers feel the changes to be overdue, much that is being tried out awaits the confirmation of what may be called operational research in the classroom.

Happily this is on the increase, as more teachers become research-minded and more researchers classroom-conscious.

Dr Lewis stresses the importance of guidance before the experiment is conducted, if the results are to be as useful or significant as would be desirable. In most experiments of the kind envisaged the numbers dealt with are expected to be relatively small. Sound statistical methods are therefore needed in formulating the conclusions that can properly be drawn. Experimental design assists analysis and interpretation and ensures that the logical requirements of valid deduction are met.

Seven basic designs most often used in educational research are severally explained: the purpose of the particular design, the method of computation, and the theoretical model, with illustrative figures and tables.

Readers without much knowledge of statistics may follow the main themes with understanding and interest, though to derive full benefit from the study they are advised to equip themselves through a preliminary reading of the author's 'Statistical Methods'.

To teachers who have it in mind to plan or participate in a piece of educational research I commend this book as combining the authority and experience of the expert with a lucidity and logical exposition that makes the subject matter accessible to the layman.

Raymond King

Group Work in Secondary Schools

Barrington Kaye and Irving Rogers
Oxford University Press, 15s.

This succinct and practical book has as its sub-title 'and the training of teachers in its methods'. To one who has had an interest in group techniques for some forty years, and who has fretted at their slow adoption, this is a great encouragement. It is certainly time that the many group methods of learning were brought together in such a way that both beginner and seasoned teacher can use them with confidence and precision in school.

While some of the book is based on the personal experience of the authors in school use of group methods, one of its bases is an authentic and responsible experiment in the training of students, carried out for several years in the Bristol area. Thus the authors pay considerable attention to the problems not only of training students in the methods, but to the problems of group methods themselves. May one express the hope that other Colleges of Education will make known their own experiences in this field?

No false claims are made for group-work as a universal panacea for all the ills of education, and the authors rightly insist that the more traditional methods of class teaching have their place in secondary education. But they very firmly make the points that it is increasingly realised that the traditional secondary school curriculum is not the best base for further education in the rapidly changing conditions of our society: that knowledge of how to use and understand

information is more important than a body of (frequently unrelated) facts; that skill in creative thinking and interpretation is what education should seek increasingly to develop; and that group methods have a significant contribution to make to these ends.

The book opens engagingly with a chapter on children's reactions to group-work, and then outlines the experiment in the training of teachers referred to above. The nature, and the organisation, of group-work are successively explained. It is then described in action. The rationale of group-work is dealt with at some length, and the book ends with a further chapter on the training of teachers and a few pages of Conclusions.

Backed by a brief Appendix, a Bibliography of 56 books for further reading or reference, and an admirable Index, this readable and persuasive handbook is excellent value at fifteen shillings, cloth boards and all. It is to be hoped that many will read it and apply its wisdom, whether or not they have yet used group methods in their work.

J. B. Annand M.A.

Teachers of English as a Second Language their training and preparation

Editor: George Perren
Cambridge University Press 32s 6d.

To paraphrase a Swiss parliamentarian: not to know English is no longer a disadvantage, it is an infirmity. Throughout the world the demand for English is becoming more insistent, whether it be to facilitate travel, trade and discussion or to provide the vehicle for education itself. This book, edited by George Perren, recognises the demand and the need to prepare sufficient teachers with the right approach and skills.

Each of the contributors concerns himself with an aspect of teacher preparation. H. A. Cartledge discusses training for teachers of adult foreign learners and describes the new RSA teacher's certificate. Pit Corder advocates advanced study in mid-career for language specialists to enable them to keep abreast of research findings and to equip them for wider responsibilities than the classroom affords. George Perren examines the needs of teachers who must use English as a medium in Universities, Secondary and Primary schools. His 'communication advisers' would help University teachers with their presentation of lectures, a suggestion relevant to the U.K. Professor Pattison advocates literature in its widest sense from the earliest stages of language learning as a necessary ingredient of education and language teaching. The place of linguistics, contrastive studies and transformational grammar is assessed by W. R. Lee and Peter Strevens has an excellent section on the imaginative use of language laboratories.

Particularly exciting about this book is its practical concern with the teacher's ability in the classroom, his skill and efficiency. There are fascinating chapters by John Bright and A. S. Hornby on the needs of teachers in Africa, Asia and the Middle East. Bright insists on classroom practice as the basis of the teacher's philosophy of language teaching. In the Sudan and Uganda his Socratic method made trainees assess a language learning problem, discover a solution and put it into practice. Hornby illustrates the pitfalls of poor lesson preparation and makes suggestions for dealing with them. Experience of Ghana and India is the basis of D. A. Smith's chapter on in-service training.

This book suggests that the whole business of teaching and training needs more coordination, particularly in Britain 'where English is the national asset'. It asks for support and discussion of the urgent problems of teacher supply in which the U.K. should be taking a lead and provides invaluable reading, posing the questions which must be asked and answered.

C. H. M. Taylor

'Experimental Design in Education'

D. G. Lewis

University of London Press: 192 pp: 35s.

The publication of Dr Lewis's 'Experimental Design in Education' following his 'Statistical Methods in Education' is both noteworthy and timely.

Comprehensive reorganisation, curricular reform, and the 'teaching revolution' are speeding up the pace of change in the schools. New modes of organisation, new methods and approaches, and new media of experimental studies is dealt with with the same thoroughness, and throughout great emphasis is laid on the need for careful planning and pilot work so that a senseless answer does not arise from an originally sensible question.

The final chapter deals with the reporting of the research, either as a thesis to be lodged in the library or as an article for publication in a journal. Styles of writing, how to quote, how to cite references and how to organize and present these data, all these and more besides are discussed with a sureness of touch which can only come from many years of good, practical tutoring. Undoubtedly this will become a prescribed text on many advanced diploma courses, and at 6/6 it is destined to become a best-seller.

William Yule M.A., Dip.Psychol.

World Outlook 1900-1965: A Study Series

General Editor: M. E. Bryant

Faber and Faber

Class Work Books

M. E. Bryant and Giles Ecclestone 15s.

Study Books

6s. each

The End of an Era

John Standen

The Unolved Problem: Southern Africa

Martyn Dyer

From Warlords to Red Star

Hugh Higgins

Kipling and the White Man's Burden

Katherine Moore

The Edwardians

John Standen

Struggle in the Deserts

Harry Browne

The Embattled Peace 1919-1939

Pauline Bloncourt

Round Table of the Twentieth Century

Martyn Dyer

The Second World War

Harry Browne

World Co-operation

James L. Henderson

At Home in the World

J. M. Cherrett

In the history of History teaching the 1960's have been a most important decade. During these years Twentieth-Century World History has steadily established itself as a vital part of many school and college syllabuses, particularly at the 15-16 age level. A number of publishers have met the challenge by producing text books and, more enterprisingly, class books which are more stimulating because they presuppose a greater depth of study of any given topic than the traditional outline text. Such is the conception of the present series under the editorship of Miss Bryant of the London Institute of Education. At the time of writing half of the planned 22 volumes of study books have been published, together with the central class work book.

Miss Bryant has succeeded in gathering together a most valuable group of experienced teachers as contributors to the series. Each study book stretches to some 100 pages of text, divided into manageably short chapters and interspersed with maps, diagrams and some small pictures; they are neat and compactly produced. Nor has Miss Bryant undertaken her editorial duties lightly, for although all the volumes can be used in their own right, they are brought into relationship with one another by the existence of the Class Work Book, cross-references in footnotes to companion volumes and a brief editorial introduction to each book advising on its use. On the other hand, the medley of titles in the series suggests that Miss Bryant has gratefully accepted offers of interesting and useful contributions rather than a careful coverage of the major topics of the century: in particular, the pre-1945 years are more thoroughly covered than the post-war period.

Three of the volumes so far published may be selected here as being of especial potential interest to readers of this journal — because they deal specifically with problems of world understanding or because they draw upon disciplines beyond the strictly historical approach of the series as a whole. Dr Cherrett's **At Home in the World** impressively sweeps within its covers a great range of ecological information from origins of mankind to the Lea Valley Development scheme. Mrs Moore's **Kipling and the White Man's Burden**, in contrast, throws the searchlight of literature on to the vital problem of the white man's attitude to the coloured races: Kipling, E. M. Forster, Joyce Carey and Alan Paton are the authors whose works are used for this purpose. Finally, the varying ways in which **World Co-operation** has been achieved in this century provide the subject-matter of Dr Henderson's contribution to the series — not an institutional analysis of UNO but a survey of human problems and responses.

One of the major difficulties about using History books in the school classroom is that they encourage passivity. This series, particularly when taken with the enrichment provided by the Class Work Book, will stimulate fruitful questioning and enquiry in many a secondary school classroom.

Derek Heater

Creative Oral Assessment — Its Scope & Stimulus

Christobel Burniston, Director of the English Speaking Board.

Pergamon Press 30s

Those who, (in order not to miss the rest of the programmes) endure listening to the countless interviews in which every third word is punctuated

with 'y' know', or 'I mean to say' are onxreasingly aware of the need for further incorporation into out educational system methods of encouraging, through oral work, clearer thought, leading to articulate experssion. To quote the Newsom report: 'There is no gift like speech and the level at which people have learned to use it determine the level of their companionship, the level at which their life is lived.'

Christobel Burniston, who is a Director of the English Speaking Board, has written a concise, yet detailed book — 'Creative Oral Assessment — its scope and stimulus, which sets out the philosophie principle and practical techniques in the examining of oral English. The book deals with interpretation of drama and poetry, the art of reading aloud, presentation of personal projects, and the art of directing interviews, of guiding questions and discussion. It is written for all educationalists and should be especially useful to the English teacher less experienced in oral work.

Joyce Grove.

Correction

A line was missed out in the last paragraph (November issue p. 256) of a note about 'Help' by Carole Sextone. The paragraph should read 'If it is a good idea to publish in a magazine causes wanting help, it should be done sincerely and if this one was, then I apologise.'

FILMS

Young Children in Brief Separation

1. Kate, aged 2 yrs. 5 mths.
2. Jane, aged 17mths.

Produced by James and Joyce Robertson

Tavistock Film Unit, Tavistock Centre, London N.W. 3.

James Robertson's Earlier Studies highlighted the intense unhappiness of young children when separated from the mother through admission to hospital, and drew attention to the risk of damage to their later mental health.*

But sometimes it is the mother who has to go to the hospital, to have another baby or an operation, and if she leaves behind a small child there may be a real problem of distress. The best solution is probably to have someone well known stay in the home to care for the child.

James and Joyce Robertson of the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations have investigated whether these upsets can be lessened if enough thought is given to how the fostering is handled. To this end they became registered foster parents and took into their family a series of little children (1½ to 2½ years) who were in need of care while the mother was in hospital.

Their approach was simple, but of profound help to the children. Before the separation occured the children visited several times and got to know the fosterhome and fosterparents well, so that when the mother then went into hospital the child entered a fosterhome which was familiar and had pleasant associations from the previous contacts.

The foster mother took only one foster child at a time, and so was fully available to give comfort

and support; there was no other child of the same age competing for her attention. Fathers were encouraged to visit freely, to stay for a meal and put their children to bed if they wished.

In the Robertsons' experiment these simple measures prevented the children from being overwhelmed and paralysed by the loss of the mother. None of their four foster children showed the intense and prolonged distress which is so often seen in separated children — often a problem to child care officers, and to parents and foster parents. The children missed their mothers and showed increasing tension as the days went on, but because of the previous familiarisation and the warm and exclusive relationship to the fostermother they not only bore up remarkably well but went back to their mothers with pleasure — in contrast to the confused, tearful reunions that so often follow less well managed separations.

The Robertsons have just released two of five films on the subject. (Three more are to come, one on a child in a residential nursery.) One is about Kate, aged 2 years 5 months, who stayed with them for a month; the other is about Jane, aged 17 months, who stayed for 10 days. Both are followed throughout their stay in the Robertson home and after their return home. The films are unemotional records, but they make the point in a moving and convincing way. Leaflets on these 16mm sound films may be obtained free of charge from James Robertson, Tavistock Institute of Human Relations, Belsize Lane, London, N.W. 3. (435 7111).

We were not able to get one of the two films reviewed for a meeting of pre-school playgroup helpers but we got one ten years old. One of the local playgroup organisers wrote the following critique of the film.

* (1952) Film: **A Two-Year-Old Goes to Hospital;** Tavistock Institute of Human Relations.
(1958) **Young Children in Hospital;** Tavistock Publications.

Going to Hospital with Mother

Although the film 'Going to Hospital with Mother' was made by Dr. James Robertson of the Tavistock Child Development Research Unit over 10 years ago, little has changed in that time, except perhaps the fashions in clothes.

The film shows Sally, a child of 20 months, who is to enter hospital for a minor operation. In the particular hospital that she is admitted, the mothers of children under school age are, not just permitted, but encouraged, to accompany their child during their stay.

Whilst Sally is in Hospital, she is naturally upset by medical examinations which take place, but shows none of the more serious upsets that too often reveal themselves in unaccompanied children. Sally's mother has a bed in the same room as her child and cares for her just as if she were at home, bathing, dressing and feeding her, and is there to comfort her immediately before and after the operation. Sally quickly recovers and is ready to go home on the fifth day.

This film shows not only the problems, but also the enormous benefits of being in Hospital with Mother.
P. Pearce.

The stream runs
the river flows
And flowers bloom
as we say goodbye to snow
But,
The noun has number,
But flowers are innumerable,
The primrose, the snowdrop, the . . .
Nominative case is for the subject,
Of the country life.
Rabbits, owls, squirrels wake-up
to spring while I listen to
Accusative case looks after the direct. . .
The robin's clear singing the. . .
Name the genders
Cuckoo, the chaffinch, the primrose.
See me after. . .
The spring comes the summer.

Linda Collins (age 12)

CORRESPONDENCE

Madam,
Children's reading books
put a whole sentence in a line.
Later
they make each line a natural phrase.
Later still the children learn
to absorb whole pages
of packed print,
chasing a phrase
from the end of one line
to the beginning of the next,
having absorbed the convention
that when the space goes done
the printer
starts a new line
for this reason only.
Nourished in this convention,
readers of modern poetry
— Whitman to Eliot and after —
have learnt
to go back to the first stages
and read a phrase at a time,
cherishing the meaningful pause
at the end of each line.
And now,
those who can read prose
poetry
or both,
are driven into a state of near-cancellation
by The New Era.
Bouncing from line to line,
they'll stop sometime
and wipe away the sweat
and think

'Perhaps the members of this Fellowship need
Some teachers who will tell them how folk read.'

Jean Allan
St. Nicholas School,
Bridge of Don,
Aberdeen

Dr Sam Everett suggested we produce notes of the credentials of contributors. We have started to do so. There are still gaps in the list. Please help us to fill the gaps. The task of collecting them has been time consuming and rewarding. We asked for articles about current research at all stages. We asked for work about creativity in education and the shift from science to art. We continued to print and to study modern trends in pupil counselling. We were led to consider discipline. And inherent in all we printed was a desire for self-knowledge and the growth of individual and international understanding. Articles along any of these living lines are always welcome. There is an educational and personal ferment and revolution going on. Our pages must reflect it. The New Era aims to present something of the workshop aspect of education and art, both from the giving and the receiving end, if they can be divided. Send us your thoughts, experience, suggestions, criticism. Last year gave us a rich harvest which we have to equal in 1969.

Coming in January issue

Report of the WEF Scottish Section 13th Annual Conference; The Significance of the Past in Education, James Henderson; Emotional Factors in Reading Disability, Helen Corkery; Another article on Team Teaching, Charles Hannam; and much else.

List of Contributors from January to September-October 1968

D. M. Anthony D.A.S.E.

At present is released to take a counselling course in the University of Keele.

Bertram Banks

Head of Mathematics Department, Ridgeways School, Southborough. Pioneer programmed learning and Nuffield resources project — now individualising methods.

Eugene L. Baum

Engaged in research work in United States programmes for the disadvantaged and in education for those living in poverty.

John L. Bazalgette M.A., Dip.Ed.

Project Officer, Youth Adult Resource Project,
Christian Teamwork Institute.

J. R. Bellerby M.C., M.A.

Sometime Professor of Economics University of
Liverpool, and reader in Agricultural Economics
University of Oxford; Fellow of Caius College, Cambridge.

Anthony Brackenbury M.A. (Cantab.)

Headmaster, Yehudi Menuhin School.

G. M. Bravery B.Sc.

Advisory Teacher of Primary Mathematics, East
Sussex Education Committee.

Colin Bulman

Lecturer in English, Oastler College of Education.
Recently was Librarian and English teacher at Alnwick
Co. Secondary School. He is the author of 'Themes for
English' (McGraw-Hill) and numerous articles on
educational subjects for 'The Teacher' and 'The New
Schoolmaster'.

T. W. Burrows Dr, M.D.

Microbiological geneticist.

Carmel Cassidy

Diploma of the National Association for Mental Health
for Teachers of Mentally Handicapped Children;
Teacher at Junior Training School.

Lois A. Child M.A. (Cantab.)

Joint Principal, Dartington Hall School, Totnes,
S. Devon.

Peter Cousins M.A., B.D.

Senior Lecturer in Divinity, Gipsy Hill College;
Editor of Spectrum.

Alaric Dickinson B.A.

Lecturer in History, Institute of Education
University of London.

Ann Dryland

Principal Lecturer in Education, Garnett College,
Roehampton.

Eileen Eisenklam S.R.N.

Social Science Certificate (LSE) London University;
Experience in counselling; at present student on Diploma
Course in Adolescent Development, Institute
of Education.

Samuel Everett, Dr

Professor, School of Education, City College of The City
University of New York; President WEF, United States.

Hugh Fairlie M.A., B.Ed.

Director of Education, County of Renfrew, Scotland.

Edmund Fulton

Educated Cracow University 1933-37 where Doctorate
obtained 1938; Post Graduate work at London School of
Economics 1938-39; war service in army; teaching
mainly in field of Remedial Education; currently
Lecturer at Furzedown College, London.

James M. Gardiner M.A.

Headmaster, Glenwood Secondary School, Glasgow.

Helen Griffiths

Student, College of Physical Education.

Joyce Grove

Degree in drama the London College; has run a
preparatory school for many years; interested in
international affairs and comparative religion; theatre
and amateur stage lifelong interest.

Rose Hacker

Voluntary Counsellor for Marriage Guidance Council.

J. D. Haldane

Consultant Psychiatrist, Cupar, Fife.

Charles L. Hannam

Lecturer in Education, Department of Education,
University of Bristol.

Derek B. Heater B.A. (London)

Head of History Department, Brighton College
of Education.

J. Hemming Dr, Ph.D. 01 977 3724

A lecturer, author of numerous books on the problems of
children and adolescents; frequently broadcasts and takes
part in television panels and discussions; former member
of Middlesex Education Committee and of Television
Research Committee on the effect of viewing on children
and adolescents; member of International Council and
Executive Board of the WEF.

J. Henderson Dr, Ph.D. 01 994 3523

Senior lecturer in the teaching of history and internal
affairs, Institute of Education, University of London;
also was International Secretary NEF 1963-64; also a
member of the International Council and Executive
Board of the World Education Fellowship; author of
'Education for World Understanding'; editor 'World
Studies' and 'Education Service Bulletin' and since 1945
'Aspects of Contemporary World History' World
Institute Study Guide.

Mary Holmes

Senior Lecturer in Health Education, University of
London Institute of Education.

Marjorie Hourd

Lecturer in English, University of Exeter; pioneer in creative writing for children; writer.

Ralph H. Hunkins

Assistant Professor of Education, State University of New York.

Goldie Ruth Kaback

Professor of Education; Co-ordinator of the Guidance and School Counselling Program, City College of the City University of New York.

Muriel M. Kay

Student Counsellor, University of Hull.

Paul Keogh

R.C. priest prior to attending Child Care Officer course at North Western Polytechnic, London. Now Child Care Officer with London Borough of Lewisham. (Contributor November Issue).

Raymond King C.B.E., D.C.M., M.M., C.deG., M.A.

Hon. Scholar of Magdalene College, Cambridge; Headmaster, Scarborough High School 1926-30, Forest Hill School 1930-32, and Wandsworth School 1932-63; UK National Commission for Unesco, Member 1947-63, Chairman of Text-Books Sub-committee, and Adviser to Education Section; Chairman of Editorial Board of Forum; Vice-Chairman of Council for Education in World Citizenship; Chairman of ENEF 1966-68, previously Vice-Chairman and Chairman 1946-50.

John E. Kirkham

Lecturer, Kesteven College of Education.

Lucile Lindberg

Lecturer, Queens College of the City University of New York.

George E. Maggs

Superintendent East Sussex County Council Children's Home.

Keith Matthews

Senior Lecturer Wimbledon School of Art.

Ben Morris Professor, B.Sc., M.Ed.

Director, Institute of Education, University of Bristol; previously Director, National Foundation for Educational Research.

Robert G. Newton

Producer and writer mainly on the amateur stage.

Ruth Froyland Nielsen

Lecturer, University of Oslo; has travelled and lectured all over the world.

C. J. W. Parkin M.A.

Senior Assistant Education Officer (Schools) Surrey.

N. A. Pass

Mathematics Lecturer, Northumberland College of Education.

Grace Petittclerc

Vice-President, Institute of Research in Childhood Health and Education, New York.

James Porter M.A., B.Sc.

Principal, Bulmershe College of Education.

K. Portman B.A.

Psychologist and Headmaster, Clacton Secondary School for Boys.

Anthony Paplauskas Ramunas Dr

Professor of Education and Psychology, University of Ottawa; Director of the Comparative Education Centre, University of Ottawa; Consultant of the International Review of Education (published by Unesco); President WEF, Canadian Section.

John N. Raynor

Principal Lecturer in Sociology, Brighton College of Education.

Mary Caroline Richards

American teacher; member of WEF.

P. S. Richards M.A. Dip.Ed.

Head of Department, Commerce and Liberal Studies, Wallasey College of Further Education. Writer on railway history and town growth.

R. L. Richer

Leicester University School of Education, Adolescent Attitudes Research Unit.

Fred H. Roberts Rev. Ph.D.

Teacher, Counsellor, Tulse Hill Comprehensive School, London.

Seonaid Robertson

Lecturer, Goldsmiths' College, London.

John Robinson M.A.

Further Education Liaison Officer, BBC.

Robert W. Shields Dr

Psychoanalyst, educational psychologist, writer.

J. M. Lomax Simpson M.B., Ch.B., D.P.M.

Experimental work with deprived children.

D. J. Skinner

Headmaster, Michael Faraday Junior Mixed School, London.

D. H. Simpson

On staff of Devonport High School, Tasmania; has taken courses in UK on personnel management, industrial design, etc.

Hazel Smith

English specialist, Basingbourne Village College, Cambridgeshire.

J. D. Smith

Senior Assistant Chief Male Nurse, Cupar, Fife.

Mary Stapleton

Lecturer, Gipsy Hill College, Kingston-upon-Thames.

H. J. F. Taylor M.A. (Cantab.), Dip.Ed., A.B.Ps.S.

Senior Educational Psychologist, London Borough of Hillingdon.

William Taylor, Professor, B.Sc., Econ., Ph.D.

Deputy Director, Institute of Education, University of Bristol.

David V. Tiedeman

Graduate School of Education, Harvard University.

Margaret Wason M.A., Ph.D., Dip.Ed.

Teaches young children, usually infants, but, at the moment, young juniors. . . uses her classroom as a workshop where 'the children and I learn.' She was a consultant for part of 'Watch!' the new TV (schools) programme; is a member of several research associations; she opens her classroom freely to parents for the entire school year.

Pauline Watson

Worker in State Psychiatric Service, New South Wales, Australia.

Anthony Weaver

Principal Lecturer in Education, Redland College, Bristol; former Secretary of the UK Section of Federation International des Communantes d'Enfants.

Lilian Weber

Lecturer, City College of New York.

Betty Willsher

Teacher, Children's Inpatient Unit, Dept Child and Family Psychiatry, Cupar, Fife.

William Yule M.A., Dip.Psychol

Lecturer in Child Development, Institute of Education, University of London. Engaged in epidemiological studies of children's handicaps.

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Holland: L. Van Gelder

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EDITORIAL

From time to time a very few complaints and criticism are received by the Editor concerning the quality of the printing of the New Era.

Do those who level these remarks appreciate or realise that every effort is being made, in spite of rising costs all around, to maintain the cost of the Journal at 3s per issue? If this price were doubled, then no doubt a more perfectly printed monthly magazine might be produced.

Practically the whole of the work involved in the production of 10 issues of the Journal over the entire year is voluntary. We do not employ paid staff, as do the daily newspapers and the monthly magazines, to proof read and re-read page proofs — also resulting in dropped lines and other mistakes on occasions. On the whole the printers do a very good job under extreme difficulties of time, at a reasonable cost, and here again, special voluntary help is often put into the production of an issue by one of the partners of our printing firm in his own time.

One of the major faults lies in the fact that although proofs are checked by the contributors and the editor, there is no time for page-proofs, and consequently the corrections are entirely in the hands of the printers' assistants and the printing machines. Our difficulties are further increased by delays in the postal service particularly during the bad weather of the winter months.

It has always been imagined that those who read the New Era do so because they appreciate the quality of the articles and the wealth of information they contain, to say nothing of the time and trouble taken by the contributors.

It is quite apparent that this is realised by the majority of the readers — who have increased in numbers very considerably over the last year.

The foregoing is not an excuse for faults which are realised and regretted, but an effort to put these into the right perspective, and to give heart to those who give so much time to the New Era.

To conclude on a more cheerful note, the editor sends to all readers best wishes for a happy Christmas, and the hope that 1969 will bring greater understanding, leading to peace between all peoples of the world.

Coral E. Reoch,
Managing Secretary,
Yew Tree Cottage,
Roundabouts,
Five Ashes,
Mayfield, Sussex.

BOOKS RECEIVED

The Mass Media —

No. 1 Newspapers

No. 2 Popular Reading

R. B. Heath, Bodley Head Press, 10s. each.

Love and Sex

E. W. Johnson, Andre Deutsch, 15s.

Chemistry — Book of Data

Nuffield Foundation, Longmans Green, 7s. 6d.

Modern Technical Drawings

G. A. Hicks, Pergamon, 17s. 6d.

English Life Series 4-6

Geoffrey Wills, Wheaton, 18s. each.

Great Ideas in Engineering

By Egon Larson, Edited by P. Pringle Maxwell, 18s.

Little Tuppen

Paul Galdone, Worlds Work, 15s.

The Missing Milkman

Roger Duvoisin, Worlds Work, 18s.

Anvil Chorus

H. L. Kaufman, Worlds Work, 21s.

William Wordsworth — Selection from his Poetry

Edited by J. H. Walsh, Chatto & Windus, 9s.

English through poetry writing

B. Powell, Heinemann, 21s.

Physics — Guide to Experiment V

Nuffield Foundation, Longmans, 17s. 6d.

Conflicting Generations — Television Plays

Longmans, 7s. 6d. each.

Four Year Olds in an Urban Community

John and Elizabeth Newsom, Allen & Unwin, 60s.

English in the Making — Stage 1

R. L. Curling, Longmans, 5s. 6d.

Looking forward to the Seventies

Edited by P. Bander, C. Smythe, 20s.

Les Amis de Sevres

Jan. 1968.

Educational Research

Feb. 1968.

Challenge & Response

H. Cunningham, Pergamon, 8s. 6d.

A Chance for Everyone

J. Hudson & P. Slade, Cassell, 5s.

How to find out about Childrens' Literature

A. Ellis, Pergamon, 21s.

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